

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 4, 1872.

The Week.

APRIL having set in, with one political convention only thirty days distant and another only sixty, we are now fairly entered upon our quadrennial political strife, which is to last till next November, and which bids fair to be as intense, as bitter, and, we fear, as violent and unscrupulous as any that the country has ever known. The Liberal Republicans of the East have begun their response to the Western invitation, and may be said to have begun well with a very sensible letter and a fairly good list of signers. The best known of them are Mr. Greeley, Judge Fithian, Mr. Waldo Hutchins, Mr. Sigismund Kaufmann, and Mr. Sinclair Tousey, who all have been active in our State politics, and have of late, we think, been more or less active on the Greeley-Fenton side. With the names of these are some less known but excellent names of men who, without having the personal grievances of any of the leaders in politics, are determined that an anti-reform candidate shall not be elected next autumn if anything they can do can prevent it. A clear idea of their views as to the Cincinnati platform, and as to the reforms upon which they are intent, may be got from their letter to the Missouri committee. They are deeply convinced, they say, that the party organization to which they belong is now under the control of persons who will use it for personal purposes, and who are determined that there shall be no discussion of the principles of Liberal Republicanism. They want the disfranchised Southern whites at once admitted to amnesty. They believe that the civil service should be so reformed "as to relieve political action from the influence of political patronage"—or, to put it in the concrete, they believe in Mr. Clinch, who, for thirty years, has done all the work of the Collector of this port, and they do not believe in Thomas Murphy and previous avatars of Thomas Murphy, who, one after another, for these thirty years, have flung about the public money in the interest now of this and now of that candidate for this or that office. They think that since the war was over we have had too much encroachment on the ancient American right of local self-control—that town-meetings are better for towns than resolutions in Congress. Finally, they think that "Federal taxation should be for revenue, and so adjusted as to make the burden on the industry of the country as light as possible."

How Mr. Horace Greeley could put his name to a platform which says that taxation should be for revenue only, he explains in the *Tribune*, saying that he asks of the Cincinnati Convention no more than this: that it shall acquiesce in his doctrine, and the truly Republican doctrine, that the issue between free-trade and protection shall be left for settlement to the people, district by district, when they choose their members of Congress. If the Convention will treat protection with that much of civility, he and his protectionist friends will be satisfied, he says. The probabilities are, we should suppose, that Mr. Greeley and his friends will be gratified. The free-traders who would make naked free-trade a question to be referred this coming summer to the people at large, are enthusiastic men and logical reasoners, but they are few. The *World*, we see, and the Cincinnati *Enquirer*, accept the suggested compromise; and, indeed, it is to the *World*, unless we mistake, that we owe the recent reinvention and formulating of Mr. Greeley's time-honored Republican doctrine about protection in the Congressional districts. The *World* and the *Enquirer*, for their parts, are in more concern about centralization and the Constitution than about economical truths which they believe want only a chance for an undisturbed hearing in order to beat out of the field the economical

truths of Mr. Greeley and his protectionist friends. As to some of Mr. Greeley's other friends who have signed the Liberal Republican letter, we suppose they will be as displeasing to many Liberal Republicans as his protectionist friends are displeasing to the *World* and the *Evening Post*, or as "all who were distressed, and all who were in debt, and all who were discontented," were displeasing to David when they joined him in the Cave of Adullam. They dissatisfied him in some respects, no doubt; but it was David that they joined nevertheless; and, as Administration organs who will read their Bible may learn, he and they together accomplished something. In view of these incipient signs of mutual good understanding between important elements of the proposed Liberal party, and in view of the fact that the French arms scandal, whether or not it has offended Germans in Germany, has very thoroughly offended Germans in the United States, we think that it may not be long before the Cincinnati Convention becomes an object of extreme attention from all Administration organs and President-makers, including those of even more than Swiss devotion.

Congress has done little during the week except introduce bills and resolutions and talk about the tariff, on which subject the best opinion appears to be that the duty on tea and coffee may yet be taken off, but that there is small reason to expect a general revision this session. The Republican and Democratic protectionists alike appear determined if possible that a revision planned even by so moderate a body as the Ways and Means Committee shall be prevented if possible, and lose no opportunity to embarrass Mr. Dawes. The feeling that something must be done before the Presidential canvass begins is not nearly so strong as it was, because, as one of the representatives has said, "the dissatisfaction with Grant has not worked down among the people yet," and the supposition is that it will be possible to pull through without taking any dangerous bull by the horns. On Wednesday, salt was the subject of a lively discussion in the Senate, and one of the senators from this State had the hardihood to assert that the salt companies were making a bare living, as was shown by their dividends, which amount merely to interest at seven per cent. on the capital invested; and the other asserted that the Onondaga Salt Company had for two years earned only three and a-half per cent. To these astounding assertions Senator Blair replied that he did not believe one word of them; and though Senator Blair would perhaps like the debates of the Society upon the Stanislaus about as well as he likes the senatorial style of debate, he is a very straightforward sort of a person, and no doubt he got pretty near the exact thing when he charged the informants of Senator Fenton and Senator Conkling with transparent falsehood. Six dividends of twelve per cent. each he asserts that the Onondaga Salt Company has paid in one year, the three and a-half per cent. dividend, for example, being a dividend on tremendously watered stock. On Monday last, Secretary Fish informed the Senate that the alleged American citizen, Dr. Howard, who is now on his way to seven years of penal servitude at Ceuta, is a Dr. Houard of French parentage, and probably of Spanish citizenship, but that the Department is still investigating his case.

Mr. Sumner's protest against the right of the Hamlin Committee to examine him has a dubious look on its legal side, the right of either House to examine its own members appearing *prima facie* reasonable, and involved in the right to impose orders upon them when speaking in their place. Mr. Sumner, however, is a learned lawyer, though for the matter of that there is always a learned lawyer on each side of every question, and one of the two is always in the wrong. But Mr. Sumner's protest, so far as it was his some-

what circumlocutory but dignified and exhaustive way of telling the committee what he thought of the mode of its construction, what he thought of the conduct of three of its members in consenting to serve on it, and what he thought of the violation of parliamentary usage and the motive of violation, was very good indeed. That the Senate may not, if it likes, set aside its own parliamentary law, and is not at all times a law unto itself—so far as this, at all events, that it is responsible to itself alone, and can be punished by no one—we take to be clear. But it is protests like this of Mr. Sumner's which, whether they be strictly good in their law or not, help to consolidate usage into what is practically law, and if there be law incite to its careful definition and limitation. He has made a forcible and useful protest against a great outrage on good usage and senatorial dignity; and the next attempt at insolent and contemptuous tyranny will be the more difficult for what he has said. In his examination, too, his answers upheld his positions. What can be the mental condition of persons who truthfully say that they believe the "real reason" for his unwillingness to testify was that he now perceives that he never had any grounds for moving an investigation, and that he wished to escape from his attitude of treason, we must let some one else say. We are baffled for once. Senator Carpenter actually says, in writing, that he had to believe of Sumner and Schurz one of two things—either they believed what they said, in which case they were traitors to their country; or else they said what they knew to be false, in which case they were probably doing it to injure Grant's chance of a renomination. Here is a condition of mind and of the moral sense! Some American official, or semi-official, violates law and perhaps steals a million or two of francs in the operation. Then we are to call him the American nation, and all of us stand still adopting his rascality.

The Connecticut contest has resulted, as everybody expected, in the re-election of Mr. Jewell, the Republican governor. "Victory," the *Times* says, in a head-line: "The State Heavily Republican." But then in a minute it says, in another large head-line, "Majority 200," and we are all unsettled again. The majority turns out to be 30, the Temperance Republicans—all for Grant?—polling an unexpected vote of 1,526. The vote was not heavy; the Democracy kept quiet; the Administration put forward its best speakers, and had a fortnight of the services of a prospective Vice-Presidential candidate; the extreme Bourbon Democracy was disaffected, and no attempt was made to conciliate it; some Liberal Republican papers advised abstention, more advised a vote for Jewell; the platforms were the same, and the same as the Missouri platform; and the result of all is a majority of 30 in a poll of 90,000. How glorious a victory this may be we do not know. Nor whose it is, exactly. It certainly looks like a victory for Mr. Hawley as against Mr. English in the campaign for the senatorship. But as the platforms were about the same, and about the same as the Missouri platform, it would seem to be certain that nearly all Republicans and nearly all Democrats like the Missouri platform, and that the nominee who brings upon that platform the highest character and the most reputable associates and "record," can carry the best men of both parties, and that there is no man in the country so strong as to be able to beat him. If this be true, the result in Connecticut would seem to have settled one other thing besides the senatorship, and that is, that it is *nominations* which are to be the important matters at Cincinnati.

Colonel Alexander McClure's contest with Colonel Gray for the seat in the State Senate obtained by the latter in the Fourth Senatorial District of Pennsylvania, has ended in a report from the investigating committee fully establishing the charges of fraudulent voting preferred by the contestant. Colonel McClure was at once sworn in, and signalized the first hours of his senatorship by introducing four important reform measures, two of which the Senate passed at sight. All this speaks well for the purification of the State's politics, and perhaps it has no other significance. Colonel Gray

was quite too assuming, we are now told, when he assured his constituents, in the midst of his supposed triumph, that the victory was for Grant and Cameron as well as for himself—at least he had no business to mention Grant. The *Press* is laboring to correct the impression that there is now "one independent, anti-Grant reformer" in the Senate in the person of Colonel McClure, and shows that in accepting the Reform Republican nomination he wrote that he would accept "no candidacy that would endanger Republican success in the Senate, or in the State or Nation"—a pledge which apparently would be redeemed if the Colonel concluded that the nomination of Grant at Philadelphia (considering what had taken place at Cincinnati) would tend exactly to endanger the success of his party. The *Bulletin*, too, quotes from a speech of his just prior to the election the acknowledgment that he is pledged "to obey the well-known sentiments of the Republicans of the district on the Presidency, as on all other questions." In the customary language of one journalist to another on these occasions, we would say to our Philadelphia contemporaries, "The *Press* and *Bulletin* must try again."

This McClure and Gray case is interesting in several ways. McClure is a politician who just before the last State election announced himself as in favor of a fight against corruption at Harrisburg, and opposed to the nomination of General Grant. To oppose the renomination of the President in Pennsylvania is, as we need not say, to oppose Mr. Simon Cameron, and what that means Colonel McClure discovered in his canvass, if he did not know before. He had to fight the Federal Navy Yard, the Federal Post-office, the Federal Custom-house, the Federal Assessors and Auditors, the municipal police, the Mayor's office, the Street Commissioner's office, the Auditor's office, the Registrar's office, the office of the Fire Department, and half a dozen other offices. The Navy Yard furnished the Administration candidate with a gentleman who "acts as judge of election, and carries off the ballot-box to party headquarters"; the Custom-house supplied him with repeaters of its own, and money to hire more; the Post-office gives him a gentleman who acts as judge of election and slips in fraudulent votes for him; the Mayor contributes a large sum to his election fund; every policeman gives a dollar or more of his pay, according as he is patrolman, sergeant, or captain, each in his degree; on election day the police force favors him by letting his repeaters do their duty undisturbed, and by arresting McClure's voters on small pretext and on none; in fifteen districts the returns are falsified to his advantage; in one of them, for instance, it is shown by sworn evidence that during the first hour of voting twelve votes were cast for his antagonist, but the returns say that only seven were cast, the judges having thrown away five votes for McClure. Corruption and fraud in nearly all forms known to American elections, and force in degrees short of murder, are what a person fights who fights against Mr. Cameron and the Administration patronage, and Colonel McClure was defeated. But he is a resolute man, and his supporters are among the weightiest citizens of Philadelphia, united as Reformers, so he went to Harrisburg, and, though resort was had to every device to keep him out of his seat, the evidence was too strong, and he had to be let in. The *Press* will find him but very dubiously like an Administration Republican, we fancy.

There can be no question that the new constitution of Illinois is destined to have a very beneficial influence on all State constitutions hereafter to be framed or made over; and we are inclined to think that it marks as important an epoch as the New York constitution of 1846, happily in a contrary sense. The Legislature, in a laborious nine months' session, has just been giving effect to the charter by passing the laws which it requires, and a correspondent says of this body that it has been, "if not the ablest, certainly the most honest, the most sober, and the purest body of men that ever attempted to

make laws for a great State." The salvation of it and of the State, he says, has been the abolition of special legislation, in consequence of which the lobby finds its occupation nearly gone. Two experiments have been instituted, of which the workings will be watched with curiosity. One is in the Municipal Incorporation Bill, and combines the principle of the cumulative ballot with a classification of the terms of office. For instance, if by popular vote any city adopts proportional or "equal" representation, it is to be divided into districts, each of which is to be represented by six aldermen chosen on the cumulative plan; the three highest candidates holding office for two years, and the three lowest for one. An attempt was made in the House, which we regret to say was ineffectual, to render this system less wasteful and uncertain than it is likely to be, by transferring the surplus votes from the more to the less favored candidates. Nevertheless, it may be well to see what party discipline can do under the most difficult conditions. The liquor law passed at this session, in imitation of those of Ohio and Michigan, but still more stringent, and which has awakened the liveliest opposition of the foreign population, is also an example to other States that vacillate between license and prohibition. Finally, we may mention the brief act, which we presume is a special concession to Mrs. Myra Bradwell, editor of the *Chicago Legal News*, and which provides that "no person shall be precluded or debarred from any occupation, profession, or employment (except military) on account of sex: *Provided*, that this act shall not be construed to affect the eligibility of any person to an elective office." The insertion of the word "voluntary" before "occupation" would have saved the necessity of the third clause: "Nothing in this act shall be construed as requiring any female to work on streets or roads, or serve on juries."

The efforts of the friends of woman suffrage in Massachusetts to get the word "male" out of the constitution have been defeated this year in the House, by a vote of 77 to 136, with 27 absent or not voting. This shows a gain in the affirmative of only nine votes over last year, and, if we read aright an article on the subject in the *Woman's Journal*, the leaders of the movement have given up the idea of a "short cut" to their cherished object through premature legislation. "Hereafter," says Mrs. Lucy Stone, "our work lies not so much with the State House as with the people. They who elect representatives and senators must see to it that only those are trusted with power who believe in our theory of government, and who respect equal human rights." The one hundred and thirty-six representatives who voted no, and whose names are to be pilloried in the *Woman's Journal*, may fairly congratulate themselves on this result of their action, namely, that they have brought back the agitation to its legitimate sphere, and reinforced the lesson that, in a republic, reforms must begin at the bottom and not at the top, in order to be either healthy or permanent.

At last, after some months of confused wondering, there is a more or less general expression of belief on the part of our press that the plain truth about the *Alabama* Claims difficulty is, that Mr. Bancroft Davis has succeeded in putting us into a very disagreeable position. So the most influential and popular journals in the country are now saying; and everybody knows what intelligent people have been saying to each other in private for the last month. It is now openly said that, for want of intelligent supervision by the Department of State, an unduly ambitious gentleman—whose most noted diplomatic service previous to his preparation of our case was the Motley correspondence, unless, indeed, he achieved the Gortchakoff correspondence also—has been enabled to endanger the peace of seventy millions of people; to jeopardize and discredit the principle of arbitration which we had honored ourselves by adopting and advancing; and to effect these things while putting his country in the wrong. Mr. Sumner's speech was, we suppose, an attempt to

express the height and the depth of our feeling of displeasure at the conduct of the people, especially the governing people, of Great Britain; Mr. Sumner declared that he never meant money; but to get the speech smuggled into a bill for damages was, as Mr. Bright has recently said to an American friend, a piece of "attorneyship rather than statesmanship," of which the credit appears to belong to our Department of State, and probably to the imperfectly supervised Assistant Secretary. The will of the country was good to make a friendly settlement of a troubling question. We are not afraid to say that, when the English expression of regret was made, the public generally supposed Mr. Sumner's indirect damages to have disappeared, and were well pleased that they had. For instance, in the discussion that immediately followed the treaty in our own papers and those of the Provinces, when the talk was on this very question as to which Government had gained most in the transaction, there was not a word of assumption that any claims other than the direct were to be insisted upon. But soon comes Mr. Bancroft Davis's "case," and at once we have everything in fog again—a mountain of mist which no man can gauge, claims that no man can estimate, upon which nobody wants any money, which nobody expects anybody to pay. The country has been kept much in the dark in this matter, but we think it begins to see clearly that there has been gross mismanagement. It is one more illustration of the certainty with which a man in a place too high for him brings discredit on those whom he represents. The Administration may be able to find a way out; but we wish it would say how.

An Italian jurist, Professor Vidari, has published his views on the Treaty of Washington, and they are worthy of consideration. He says the Treaty is so ambiguous as to bear out either of the two conflicting interpretations, and that the only portion of it which might determine one's doubts he finds in the very first article, where it is written:

"In order to remove and adjust all complaints and claims on the part of the United States, and to provide for the speedy settlement of such claims which are not admitted by Her Britannic Majesty's Government, the high contracting parties agree that all the said claims growing out of acts committed by the aforesaid vessels, and generally known as the *Alabama* Claims, shall be referred to a Tribunal of Arbitration, etc."

Now, when we talk, says Professor Vidari, of acts committed by the Confederate cruisers, we must mean those acts which they directly intended and effected as the immediate consequence of their cruising, and in these we could not possibly include the transfer of American ships to the British flag, the heightened insurance risks, the prolongation of the war, the greater expenses thus incurred, etc.:

"To commit an act means to exert one's personal activity directly upon some person or thing; and, therefore, whatever is not the equally direct consequence of this exercise of activity cannot be said to be committed by the agent."

This argument will appear less subtle and far-fetched if we bear in mind the double meaning of the word "claims," as pointed out the other day in these columns by Judge Nott, and substitute for it the words "causes of action" in the phrase "all the said claims growing out of acts committed." Professor Vidari relies, however, mainly on the facts antecedent to the Treaty as aids in interpreting it, and reaches what we may call the unavoidable conclusion that the "amicable settlement" referred to in the protocol is the Treaty itself. Under this head, he notices the fact that the British Commissioners, in the session of April 5, accepted the rules of international law, which they at first rejected, and which are now incorporated in Article VI. of the Treaty, for the guidance of the Geneva Tribunal, in order, as they explained, to show the desire of their Government to confirm the "amicable relations" of the two countries, and to establish rules of such a nature as to give satisfaction for the future.

THE FRENCH ARMS INVESTIGATION.

THOUGH the French Arms Investigation has not yet come to a close, still enough has been brought to light to give us a satisfactory understanding of the history of the transactions, to show where the Government has been innocent, and where and to what degree it has been at fault. The discrepancy between the reports of the War and the Treasury Departments, and the wide difference between the sums paid by France for the arms and those received by the Government at Washington, have been explained to the satisfaction of everybody, and have long passed out of the discussion. There still remains a charge of violation of United States law and of our international duties. It is asserted that two United States statutes have been broken. According to the law of 1868, the Secretary of War is "directed to cause to be sold, after offer at public sale, on thirty days' notice, in such a manner as he may deem most advantageous to the public interest," any unsuitable arms, ammunition, etc., he may wish to dispose of. It is charged that in several particulars the sales were not executed in accordance with the provisions of that law; and this charge the accusers of the Administration have, we think, made good. There was one plain violation of the spirit and another plain violation of the letter of the law. The act of 1868, as first proposed by Mr. Garfield, authorized the Government to sell unsuitable arms, ammunition, etc., at public or private sale, without any restrictions or limitations whatever. Mr. Van Wyck objected; he thought it would be unwise to allow arms to be sold privately which had not first been offered at public sale, for the reason that the purchaser might see the officers of the department to get them for less than their market value. If the arms were first put up at public sale, it is plain there could be no chance for cheating; for the officers of the Department could not take less than what was publicly bid for them, while no private purchaser would offer a bribe to get them for more. Mr. Van Wyck, therefore, moved that the arms be advertised for thirty days at public sale before any were sold privately. This amendment Mr. Garfield accepted. The wording of the resolution was careless, and, from the account of the proceedings in the *Globe*, we should say that the amendment was tossed into the resolution in a hasty and inaccurate manner. The War Department construed this law to mean that the offer at public sale for thirty days must precede the private disposal not of each lot of arms, but of the particular kind advertised. According to this strange construction, after the 10,000 muskets of a certain kind had been offered at public sale for the requisite thirty days, another 10,000 might be sold privately without the formality of putting up this second lot at thirty days' notice. Six months later, still another lot could be sold. Nothing would be wanted, then, but a dishonest officer and a dishonest purchaser to cheat the Government out of the full value of the arms sold. Ten thousand muskets, which in the market might bring four dollars apiece, might be sold at three dollars apiece to a purchaser who would give the officer in charge of the sale \$5,000 for the favor. This was the very possibility Mr. Van Wyck's amendment was intended to guard against.

The officers of the War Department, then, plainly violated the intention of the law, and that intention was so obvious that we must believe they were conscious of the violation. In the manufacture of ammunition for the purpose of selling it, they violated the letter of the law. Plainly, the Government can only sell what and in what manner the law authorizes it to dispose of. If it can manufacture cartridges without authorization, there was, then, no need of any law providing for the sale of arms. The quibble of the defence will be that they have the right to manufacture such things as they think necessary, and that after their manufacture, if they be unsuitable, they have the right to sell them. The ammunition is up to the time of manufacture suitable; after it, unsuitable. If the cartridges were suitable, it was unlawful to sell them, and no country can be supposed to authorize its government to manufacture things which are unsuitable. Moreover, if the cartridges sold could

have been used for the breech-loaders of the pattern of 1868 (and they could at least have been made to be so used), of course the statute was directly contravened. As the case stands, we feel no hesitation in saying that the law was pretty well violated.

The other law the Government is accused of disregarding is that directing that no arms, the property of the United States, shall be sold to the agent of any friendly power when at war with another friendly power. It is charged that the officers of the War Department disposed of old arms to persons whom they knew to be French agents. In the main, it seems to us that this charge has not been made good. Certainly, up to the 13th of October, 1870, no arms were sold to any persons known by the Department to be the authorized agents of either belligerent. On that day, Secretary Belknap and General Dyer discovered that Mr. Squire, to whom they had just made a large sale, was an agent of the French Government. Secretary Belknap at once ordered that no more arms be sold to him; but he delivered what had been purchased, and for this he is censured by some. Perhaps it would have been better had he not done so; he had not yet received from Mr. Squire the margin commonly exacted from purchasers, and could have renounced the bargain with propriety had he chosen so to do; still, there was nothing in his action deserving of severe censure. It is not proved that the Government sold arms to persons whom its officers knew to be agents of France, and, with an exception or two, they seem to have taken all the precautions to prevent a violation of United States law that could have been reasonably expected at the time. The officers of the War Department could not possibly have guarded against selling to French agents. They refused to sell to the Remingtons as soon as they understood their true character, but the Remingtons might have employed a dozen agents, who, in their turn, might have employed a dozen sub-agents. The law required they should sell to no one whom they knew to be buying for France or Germany. It was necessary they should do that much; it would have been useless and impolitic to have attempted more. It was impossible that the officers should know that the buyers were not French agents; their only obligation was to maintain a condition of ignorance that they were. The War Department notified its New York agent not to sell arms to the Remingtons. This was not enough: it ought to have notified him not to sell to any person he knew to be an agent of either of the countries at war. The officers in charge of the sales did not fail, so far as we know, in maintaining the proper state of ignorance. We think, however, they went a little too far in delivering arms from the Government lighters directly to the decks of the French steamers. The officers in charge of the sale may say that they did not know the purchaser was a French agent; that the arms, so far as they were aware, were still in the hands of private speculators. Still, this is one of those things which seem to be more significant than they are: it could have been avoided, and the Government would have been wise to refuse to deliver the arms. In a word, we think the War Department has been, perhaps, a little careless, while we acquit it at this point of any violation of United States law.

No charges of bribery or peculation have as yet been fixed upon any one. We see clearly brought out two wants of our Government with which we have been long familiar. These wants are dignity and respect for law. The mere fact that the Government should have been willing to break or strain a statute to get a good price for a lot of second-hand goods is unworthy the dignity of a country like ours. Whether the law-making has been slovenly or capricious, or whether the law-makers are not held in very high esteem, it is certain that executive officers at Washington have long shown a disposition to look upon laws (particularly in small matters) as things rather to get around than to obey. They certainly will continue to think in that way until the country notifies them that they must cease to do so; and it is important that the public shall speak distinctly on this point. It may have been very well to break the law in the interest of self-preservation, as we did in the war; it may have been well even to get rid of an obnoxious President, as we so

narrowly and happily escaped doing in 1868; but nobody will say it is good to trample under foot restrictive statutes in order to sell off old arms or any other accumulations of the Government's garrets and cellars. We notice, too, an incipient greed and selfish carelessness in our conduct towards other nations, against which we should particularly guard. Since the Revolution, we have perhaps had the purest foreign policy and practice of any country under the sun; but we, nevertheless, need special caution as to the future. Our position among the nations is so entirely anomalous that we are scarcely likely to think of putting ourselves in the places of others; and we are so strong and so distant from any possible enemy that it will hardly be in human nature to help presuming a little on our advantages.

THE RECENT COMMERCIAL AND FINANCIAL EXPERIENCE OF BELGIUM.

WHATEVER tends to throw light—especially the light derived from experience—upon the present commercial and financial policy of the United States, is eminently worthy of attention; and of all the records of recent experience, none are more valuable or comparatively so little known as those of the small kingdom of Belgium. We, therefore, propose to ask the attention of our readers to a brief review of the commercial and financial history of that country since the commencement of the present century: a subject which Dr. Elder, of Philadelphia, in his recent book, has so wilfully or ignorantly misrepresented, with a view of bolstering up the system of Pennsylvania protection.

Passing by the historical fact that the "Low Countries," including Holland and Flanders (Belgium), owed their growth and prosperity during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries mainly to their exceptional freedom from the commercial and industrial restrictions which then fettered all the rest of Europe, we find that during the French occupation of Belgium by the first Napoleon the protective system was carried out practically, and under military rule, to a degree rarely if ever equalled. Not only was the introduction of all foreign goods into the country strictly forbidden, but all goods of foreign growth and production found within the state were seized and publicly burned in the streets, and the persons concerned in their importation summarily shot or otherwise severely punished. The result of twenty-two years of such rule under the French was, that the whole country, when the Dutch assumed the sovereignty in 1814, had become desolated, and to a considerable extent even depopulated. The Dutch, however, a practical, honest, and industrious people, brought in a new and altogether different policy: a cardinal feature of which was a customs system in which the maximum duty levied on the import of raw materials was only *three per cent.*, and upon all manufactured articles *six per cent.* Under this period of free-trade legislation (1814-1830), the principal manufactures of Belgium were again brought into existence, and developed with great rapidity: a fact demonstrated by an exhibition of national industry about the year 1829, which at that time attracted the attention and comment of Europe by reason of the excellence and diversity of the manufactured articles contributed.

But the deep-rooted antagonism which existed in respect to many political questions between the Dutch and the Belgians, coupled with differences of language and religion, finally overshadowed all other subjects, and in 1830 a revolution broke out which resulted in the separation of the two countries. Then, like the United States, Belgium underwent one of those intense social and political crises—inseparable always from a bloody civil war—and trade and industry were naturally laid prostrate. The manufacturers of Belgium, although enjoying almost unparalleled advantages in respect to the price and supply of skilled labor as compared with the rest of Europe, embraced the opportunity afforded by this condition of affairs to institute a movement in favor of protection; and, mainly through the popular hatred of the Dutch and of

the general policy by which they had for fifteen years governed the country, fully succeeded in overthrowing the previous free-trade legislation. In its place they induced the new government to adopt a tariff almost as restrictive and illiberal as that now in force in the United States; with sliding scales to maintain the price of bread at artificial fixed rates, differential duties, and drawbacks in complex multiplicity.

A recent letter from a leading statesman of Belgium—M. Corr Van der Maeren—thus describes the result of such a fiscal policy, which, without prejudice, might be reasonably regarded as a correct picture of the present condition of affairs in the United States. He says:

"The manufacturers being in full possession of the home market, neglected to keep pace with the improvements in productive machinery which were going on in other countries, and produced only for the consumption of their own limited market. Rendered thus incapable of competing in foreign markets with their neighbors, they lost the commercial support of the mercantile community, who had hitherto exported their products; many of the principal trades combined together in order to maintain high prices, which weighed heavily upon their unfortunate consumers; but this and every other means which they put in practice to profit by the monopoly conceded to them by the new legislation, could not last. Producers and consumers, shut up in one cage, found it too small for their movements, and trade continued to decrease. I will give you one example, illustrative of the situation. Foreign coal was taxed with a prohibitory duty. The glass and other manufactories established in the neighborhood of the coal districts were, of course, obliged to pay the price fixed by a combination of the coal owners and miners, until at length these manufactories actually stopped working, because of the high price of fuel. They claimed on their side the 'protection' of the government against the monopoly of the coal-masters; and the final result was that, in order to save the industrial establishments from ruin, the government was obliged to use the power given it by law, and take off the duty provisionally on the importation of coal. In short, the protective legislation, with its privileges and monopolies, produced such effects as this every day in various ways and by conflicting interests."

Moved by such disastrous results, the Minister of Finance, M. Frère Orban, came forward in 1851 and denounced, in the most energetic terms, before Parliament, the whole policy of protection, which he asserted would, if continued, be the ruin of the whole system of Belgian domestic industry. He further declared that from that time it would be the purpose of the government to reform progressively the existing customs legislation of Belgium, eliminating from it all protective duties, and placing it, finally, upon a purely revenue basis. But, upon their side, the manufacturers were no less determined to defend what they called their rights and privileges. They termed themselves "the supporters of national industry." They contested inch by inch every foot of ground, and made the proposed reforms for many years, in Parliament and out of Parliament, the principal topic of public discussion. M. Orban, however, made steady progress in carrying out his declaration of principles, and in 1855 succeeded in passing a new and reformed tariff; and from that time tariff reforms went on steadily until 1866, when the present tariff, framed entirely on the basis of revenue, and without one feature of protection (and which Dr. Elder, in assuming the position of public instructor, seems never to have heard of), was enacted.

This tariff (see "Comparative Tariff of all Countries, Treasury Department, 1869") will be found, on inspection, to be the most liberal, with the possible exception of that of Great Britain, of any civilized country, and framed solely with a view of obtaining revenue. Its effects have been so entirely satisfactory that, at the present time, there is no political party in Belgium which thinks the policy of protection to be worthy even of consideration; and no public man, author, or journalist of any repute, who advocates or is in any degree identified with protection. Within the last ten years, furthermore, the various Chambers of Commerce of the kingdom have unanimously voted resolutions in favor of the desirability of the government's devising some financial scheme whereby it could be enabled to dispense with the raising of revenue through the customs, and so, by suppressing them altogether, attain the position of *perfect free trade*. In a speech by the Finance Minister, delivered in Parliament November, 1867, he uses the following language:

"There is no doubt that very few people could be found who would maintain our customs for the sake of the institution itself. Those who support the necessity of customs do so for the sole reason that it is a means of procuring revenue. The principal obstacle we meet, when we attempt to abolish our customs, is the considerable revenue they yield to the State—revenue which we should have to replace by other taxes."

In the same speech, the Minister presented the following remarkable statistics, showing a comparison between the results for twenty years in France of trade and industry under a protective system, and the results for the same period in Belgium (a border country), where, for the major part of the time specified, the customs duties had been in a condition of continued and progressive reduction :

	Frs. cts.		Frs. cts.	
General importations into Belgium (consumption and transit) per inhabitant was.....	In 1847....	90 55	In 1865....	272 99
Do. do. in France....	"	26 35	"	92 83
Difference in favor of Belgium..		54 20		180 16
General exportations (consumption and transit) of Belgium per inhabitant was.....	"	72 60	" ...	240 86
Do. do. in France....	"	29 56	"	107 54
Difference in favor of Belgium..		43 24		133 32

Under the protective tariff of 1854, the customs duties of Belgium produced 10,928,535 francs; but under the free-trade legislation of 1865, the revenue increased to 15,764,608 francs—a gain of nearly forty-five per cent. Such, then, is the lesson to be learned from the recent fiscal history of Belgium; and whatever else it may teach, it is conclusive to this effect—namely, that protection, whenever it existed in Belgium, under either French or home rule, proved most disastrous to the industry and commerce of the country.

THE HAXO-STREET TRIAL.

PARIS, March 13, 1872.

AS a class, and if you only judge them by their manners, our working-men are certainly superior to those of any other country. They have a very nice artistic feeling, an extraordinary amount of natural wit; but their cleverness covers a great ignorance, and their amenity can at times give place to the most cruel instincts. There is more brutality in the Anglo-Saxon character, and more ferocity in the French. The disease is chronic with one race, and acute with the other. All the phrases and theories about the Commune seem to me worthless beside the plain statement of facts. Mr. Frédéric Harrison would not indulge in his apologies if he saw in our courts the heroes of his imagination. The last trial which has taken place has hardly attracted any attention, as the sensibility of the public has been almost overtaken. But I believe that the drama of Haxo Street is perhaps one of the most instructive, and I will give it to you in all its most horrible details.

It is now quite evident that the massacres which ended the reign of the Commune were not committed in a sudden outburst of rage. They were pre-conceived; every day in succession had its massacre. On the 24th May, the archbishop was executed with his companions in the prison of La Roquette. On the 26th May, at three o'clock in the afternoon, sixty Federals came to the prison, with an officer at their head (the name of this officer is still a secret), bearing an order from Ferré (who was executed with Rossel) addressed to the director of the prison, named François, to give him as many hostages and other prisoners as the company could safely conduct away. The latter at once gave the order to have all the hostages led out of their cells, as well as fifteen others, of whom he himself made the list. He went himself into a passage which runs before the cells, and one of the guardians called out the names. All the hostages had been led out of their cells. The guardian, named Romain, did not pronounce well the name of one of the hostages, Father De Bengy. De Bengy? said he quietly, and, stepping forward, he placed himself by the other victims. Father Guérin, a missionary, offered meanwhile to M. Chevriaux to answer for him, if his name was called out, as this last prisoner was a married man with children. He had already made him this offer the day before, as he was dressed like a layman: his life was a life of martyrdom; he could never die better. Chevriaux refused to accept the sacrifice. Fortunately, neither the one nor the other was called. But such examples of simple heroism ought to be remembered.

François, the director of the prison, gave to the officer in command, whom he did not know and whose name he says he is ignorant of, fifty prisoners in all, knowing very well that they were to be executed. The hostages were counted one by one at the outside door. The unfortunate men placed themselves in the midst of two files of Federals. There were thirty-five

gendarmes (the gendarmes are all of them old soldiers, and are generally married men), ten municipal guards of Paris, ten priests, and two common citizens—three gendarmes were fortunately in the infirmary of the prison. This troop went up the Rue de la Roquette as far as the Père la Chaise Cemetery, then followed the Boulevard de Ménilmontant as far as the Boulevard de Belleville. The priests were praying fervently and exhorting the gendarmes. At the lower part of the Boulevard de Ménilmontant the troop was stopped by a barricade and the 174th battalion of Federals. The officer who conducted the prisoners asked the commander of this battalion for some more men. This commander himself followed with a company and its officers. The crowd began to surround the cortège, but it was quiet at first. In the street called by the name of Puebla (the Mexican town) the crowd almost suddenly became delirious, ferocious, and began to utter horrible threats. The cortège entered the *mairie* of Belleville, which was the headquarters of Ranvier, a member of the Commune, and one of the men who had set fire to the Tuileries and the Hôtel de Ville. Ranvier knew the hostages. He had often visited them at the Prison of La Roquette, and he showed them like curious beasts to his friends. He gave the order for an immediate execution on the ramparts, allowing the prisoners only a quarter of an hour to make their wills.

The troop now left the *mairie* amidst a howling crowd. Men and women in arms threatened and struck the prisoners; some orators made speeches and inflamed the mob. This continued all along the Rue de Paris and the Rue de Haxo. At half-past five only did the prisoners reach the ramparts at the headquarters of the legions of Belleville and Ménilmontant. Four military commanders had successively occupied this post in four days—a Pole called Mutasewitch, who had fled on the 22d May, as soon as he heard that the Versailles had entered Paris, and three other men who fled in their turn. When the prisoners arrived, Parent, who had just been named delegate of war in the place of Delescluze, was there with eighty officers. He was on the point of making his escape to the Prussian lines. Parent had besides with him a number of members of the famous Central Committee, who made the insurrection of the 19th of March. When the hostages arrived, Parent, turning to the members of the Central Committee, told them ironically: "Show your influence—now is the time; hinder these people from dishonoring the Commune." The first hostages were already entering one by one through a *grille*, and each one was pushed through with a violent kick by a herculean artilleryman. They were placed against a house, and they were shot almost at the muzzle. Then a new batch came in, and the newcomers had to witness the last convulsions of their predecessors. This massacre lasted more than a quarter of an hour. Only one man attempted something like a revolt. An under-commissioned officer of the Guard of Paris, a handsome man, still young, was offering his breast to the gun of a pseudo-sailor of the Commune, when an old priest threw himself on the gun and placed himself between the sailor and the soldier. He was almost immediately shot, and the mob struck his body with violence. After it seemed all over, when all the bodies heaped together were motionless, three Federal officers, two soldiers, and a woman walked for some time over this human barricade, watching, revolver in hand, for some movement.

It is impossible to give an accurate idea of the sullen aspect of the men who appear before the Council of War as accomplices of the massacre of Haxo Street. A man called Benot, who hardly answers the questions of the President, was Bergeret's right-hand man, and a colonel in command at the Tuileries. He was once a soldier, and spent 42 months in prison during the time of his service. Bergeret disappeared after the burning of the Tuileries. Benot, with 1,500 men, went first to the *mairie* of the eleventh arrondissement, where the Commune resided for a while. On the 26th, he retired to Haxo Street along the rampart; and he insisted upon the execution when Parent made a faint effort in behalf of the victims. His only defence is that he did not give the order himself to take the prisoners out of the Roquette prison. There is not one man among the 26 accused who does not wear an air of stupidity and brutality. They all deny everything, and they have not even the intelligence to choose between what they may safely avow and what it would be dangerous to avow. Two hundred witnesses are to be heard in this case, and the trial will perforce last at least a week.

I have carefully gone through all these criminal trials of the Commune, and each one has left on me a more painful impression. There is a great deal of ferocity in all the men who committed these murders, but there is no courage in their ferocity. Now that the excitement is over, their attitude is the most contemptible that can well be imagined. It is also very striking that all the leaders of the movement, almost without exception, escaped to the Prussian lines and abandoned their foolish instruments. Delescluze is one of the few who died on a barricade. But many are now in London, holding meetings in the cafés of Leicester Square, and making quietly their preparations for the next social rising. I recom-

mend you to read the Parliamentary inquest which has just been made on the week of the 18th March. These two volumes in quarto contain the depositions of all the men who played a part in these sad events; and nothing can be imagined more interesting in a social as well as in a political point of view. I have been particularly struck by the accounts given of the state of the Parisian workingmen by some employees of the police, who for years have been watching the secret societies. Their description of the Paris *prolétaires* is far from flattering, and the events of the Commune have, to a great extent, proved the veracity of the opinion of these functionaries of the detective force. The sufferings of workingmen in Paris are becoming very great. So long as Paris is not the political capital, there will be no confidence in the future; foreigners will abandon it. It requires some courage to buy and to furnish handsomely a house for some future Commune. Everybody is struck by a change in the manners and the attitude of the people: the *ouvriers* are no longer polite; they have become very rude, especially towards foreigners. They have a hostile look, and when they have a chance they speak of revenge. They also have a *revanche* to take; they have a defeat to avenge. I see everywhere the seeds of social war; the gay capital of pleasure is now a sort of New Jerusalem. It is kept down by a strong army, but as soon as the Government, for whatever reason, is disorganized, and there is nobody to give a clear order, we may expect new and perhaps more frightful troubles, and the middle classes will no more resist the Communists than they did on the 18th of March. Remember, that a few weeks after the Commune the Conservatives could not even find a candidate for election; and that the nomination of M. Vautrain, one of the mayors of the 18th of March who made a compromise with the Commune, was considered almost as a triumph. There is something awful and tragical in the aspect of Paris as it is now; nor do I speak only of the material ruins, of the ghastly Tuileries, of the ruined Hôtel de Ville. I saw the other day through the walls of the Tuileries the Victory which surmounts the Arch of Triumph of the Carrousel: this curious optical coincidence is realized everywhere in the moral world. I see everywhere the marks of decadence beside the traces of past greatness.

BISMARCK IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

BERLIN, March 12, 1872.

ONE of the most memorable and eventful of parliamentary debates—brilliant and effective as a display, and historical in its issue—was the discussion of the new school law in the Prussian House of Lords upon the 6th, 7th, and 8th of March. The “ancient and honorable” were out in full force—Baron, Graf, Herzog, Fürst—to preserve the traditions and dignities which constitute their life from the invasion of Bismarck and his mushroom peers; the “clericals” had rallied their last man, the Catholic through his allegiance to the church, the Evangelical through his jealousy for the faith, to retain the prerogative of ecclesiastical supervision over the common schools; and the supporters of the ministry felt that not one of them must be wanting, lest through his absence the Government should either lose the measure so hard won in the Chamber of Deputies, or fail of such a majority as would give to this great reform strength and permanence in public opinion. Baron Senft von Pilsach, leader of the opposition, one of the oldest members of the house, and representing one of the oldest and proudest families in the realm, declared that he could not remember ever to have seen so large an attendance of the peers, and added, in a tone of petulance and contempt, that there were present many members utterly unknown, who had evidently been brought in for the sole purpose of voting against the old working members. But on his own side, also, were to be seen lords who had scarcely appeared in the house for twenty years, two of them, the Princes Anton and Boguslaw Radziwill, connected with the Royal family, upon the Catholic side, who had come to cast their votes against the Government in a measure which seemed to threaten the privileges of their order and the prerogatives of their church.

The whole spectacle was one of curious and exciting interest, and some of the by-play had a spice of drollery. The chamber in which the peers assemble is by no means so large and imposing as the Senate Chamber at Washington. It is a square hall, plainly decorated, situated within a court and garden, the entrance to which is through a doorway and a hall that present only the common aspect of a good Berlin house. The floor is seated with cane-bottomed chairs, bound together in rows after the manner of a concert-hall; and at the back of each chair is a small movable wooden leaf, which serves for a table to the chair directly behind it. At the upper end of the hall is a double platform, on the higher part of which is the President's box; in front of this is the tribune, a small pulpit upon which speakers may lay their notes, papers, and books of reference while addressing the house; in front of this again is the stenographers' table, and on each side of

the table are the desks of the ministers; the first of these to the left (at the right of the president) is occupied by Prince Bismarck; the second, by General von Roon, the Minister of War; the third, by the new Cultus-Minister, Dr. Falk, a tall slender man of forty-five, with black hair and eyes, and a quick, nervous manner. Directly in front of these, as a member of the house, with a very modest countenance and quiet demeanor, sits the great master of strategy, the conqueror of Austria and France, Von Moltke. In the gallery fronting the president are boxes for the Royal family, the diplomatic corps, and members of the Chamber of the Deputies; upon the two sides are galleries for reporters and spectators.

The school law, as reported from the lower house, provides that the supervision of the schools—which had come to be regarded as a church prerogative—shall belong to the state alone; and that the office of school-inspector, which by usage has pertained to the parish clergy *ex officio*, shall hereafter be filled only by appointees of the state—that is, shall be a civil and not an ecclesiastical office; and an appropriation was called for to pay this new order of school-inspectors. The Ultramontanes had strained every nerve to secure the defeat of this law by the peers. They had flooded the house with petitions and remonstrances; they had stirred up a threatening agitation among the Poles; they had appealed to the pride and prejudices of the nobility, and to the fears of the devout; they had invoked precepts and precedents, and in general had made so great a rout that the friends of the law had fears for its safety.

The debate was marked by signal ability. The conservatives and clericals put forward their ablest men, and many strong and fitting things were said, and many sharp hits were made at Bismarck, though some speeches read from the tribune were insufferably dull, and at times the house showed its impatience by indulging in loud conversation during such an indiction. There was nothing that would answer to the American notion of eloquence—oratorical declamation upon great principles, and passionate appeals to partisan interests; but the debate was a downright matter-of-fact talk upon the case in hand. When at last Prince Bismarck rose, all ears were attentive, all eyes were fixed. In deference to his military sovereign, the Chancellor always appears in his uniform as a general. During the debate he had sat twisting his moustache, twirling his pen, or turning hurriedly over his portfolio for a note or memorandum; and in his speech he manifested the same exuberance of nervous or electrical vitality—this is also an indication of that impatience of control or contradiction, and of that prodigious energy of will, which are written upon every feature, and especially in the lines of the forehead and mouth. He makes no attempt at oratory, uses little gesticulation, hardly varies his tone, sways his body slightly back and forth, keeps his left arm akimbo, twirls his pencil in his right hand, or thrums at intervals with both hands upon his desk—thus working off his superfluous nerve-power. He speaks rapidly, occasionally hesitating, not for words, but to choose the particular word which he would utter, not in that assembly alone, but of Europe and of the world. And his words are both weighed and weighty.

I am inclined perhaps to a higher moral estimate of Prince Bismarck's power than many would accord to it. Some of his greatest admirers content themselves with exulting over his keen state-craft. But he seems to me to belong to that far higher and rarer class of men who, whether in church or state, are the *diviners* of their times. There are men, for instance, in church affairs, whose speeches always seem to prevail, whose measures always seem to carry, and who, because of this, are suspected of manipulation and Jesuitical scheming, yet who never plan beforehand to control an assembly by secret measures, or to secure a majority through a caucus. Such men in church or state combine these three elements: a far-sighted and comprehensive sagacity that embraces in its view all the causes, motives, and tendencies of events; a quiet confidence in the working of principles, laws, and tendencies—which, in the theological sense, is also a faith in Providence; and, thirdly, a knowledge of human nature which enables them to touch occult motives and springs of action, and at the critical moment, long foreseen and patiently waited for, to bring these into conjunction with the ripening tendency of things, and so to secure the desired consummation. This prophetic sagacity and this philosophical handling of men and events are, it seems to me, far more to Bismarck than political manipulation or diplomatic craft. It is because of these that his impetuosity of temper does not frustrate his aims, and that he dares to use a frankness and boldness of speech which cunning and ignorant men alike mistake for the trick of the prestidigitator to divert attention from his sleight-of-hand. And by these same qualities he leads other men to do, or to imagine they do, what he has simply made patent by timing their latent feelings to the latent causes which he had divined and mastered.

Thus, in the spring of 1870, when urging a larger appropriation for the army than the house was disposed to grant, he said openly, “It is *Donner-*

wetter; I snuff war in the air." No man could divine his meaning. The political atmosphere was calm and clear, especially in the quarter of France. "I must be ready," he continued; "and I cannot create an army out of the ground, nor make it from my fingers." Only Von Roon and Von Moltke understood him. Bismarck retired to his country-seat too "sick" to see any one; but the king, the minister of war, the chief of police, were within this circle of diplomatic seclusion. Summer came; the king went to Ems; one morning the "sick" chancellor reappeared in the Reichstag, and announced that Napoleon had declared war, but Germany was ready. The house cheered over the preparation which they had made for war!

The struggle of to-day with the Romish party in Germany dates from Sadowa and Sedan; and having deposed Austria from the political leadership of Germany, and France from the military leadership of Europe, in the logical sequence of events he will now depose the Pope from his hierarchical headship over the states and peoples of the continent. Events have brought Bismarck face to face with Pius IX., and have found him prepared to rally German honesty and German unity against ecclesiastical meddling in political affairs. This has been the aim of all his speeches upon the school question, but in this speech of March 6 it was put more directly than ever before. He unmasked the conspiracy now working in French diplomacy to seek revenge upon Germany first in Italy; paralyzing Germany through internal religious disorders and the fear of a Polish insurrection, then seizing upon Rome and holding it for the Pope, and thus once more creating a Catholic power strong enough to threaten Germany and curtail her influence. He showed that, so long as Prussia was a little state wedged in between Austria and France, the Romish Church was content to enjoy her toleration; but from the moment that Prussia began to create in the heart of Europe a great and commanding military power under an evangelical dynasty, all the craft of the Jesuits was directed either toward manipulating the state for the church, or destroying the Government through the church. For this the Catholic clergy were an organization under more stringent discipline than the army; the confessional gave them the means of instigating opposition to the Government through false representations; they had appealed to the ignorance and bigotry of the people by telling them that the Government would make heathen of their children by excluding religion from the schools; at the same time, the Polish clergy had used the schools solely for teaching their dogmas, so that on coming to the higher schools the Polish children were far behind the German in their common studies, and thousands of the Poles were so ignorant that they had signed the clerical petitions against the school law with the mark of the cross. The German people, reading the German papers and thinking for themselves, could not be imposed upon by the cry that the Government intended to heathenize their children; the people who read the discussions could be trusted to judge for themselves; but the Poles could see only what their priests would suffer to appear in their own language; and, in view of these facts, he demanded that the common schools should be taken out of the hands of the clergy, that their teachers should be amenable only to inspectors appointed by the state, and, as the most essential point of all, that all children of whatever parentage should be taught the German language as the language of the schools and of the nation.

After this weighty speech there was a rambling discussion of two days, in which Prince Bismarck kept up a running fire of wit against his opponents. He is never at fault for a retort. As a German friend expressed it, "Bismarck first serves a substantial meal, and, if they do not relish that, he throws in cayenne pepper." At the close the school law passed by 125 yeas to 76 noes; and Germany entered upon a new era of emancipation and progress—Germany, I say, for the liberals in church and state in all parts of the empire feel that Bismarck has fought their battle and won their cause.

AUSWANDERER.

Correspondence.

EMILE ERCKMANN AND ALEXANDRE CHATRIAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You do not like the French and you adore the Germans. That is a matter of taste. I may be permitted to say, that I do not envy yours. You criticize our authors rather sharply. That is your right as a bohemian. Tear our authors to pieces, if that be your pleasure, but leave the man entire. Mr. Erckmann-Chatrian will not thank you for severing his contiguity by splitting him into two. Such treatment could drive an angel into a passion. For the very same thing we are all in a passion just now, all my countrymen and your servant, a french girl,

G. d. A. M.

P.S.—I confess to be ignorant in geography, but if I were to write on it, I would first stick my nose into a book, not to commit a blunder.

DESCENDED FROM ADAM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the notice of *Scribner's Monthly* (March 28), the critic of the *Nation*, in allusion to an article on "The One Human Race," says as follows: "Prof. Lewis decides this question in the affirmative, or rather, he calls upon those who affirm the negative to come forward, if they dare; and prove that all men are not descended from Adam." This statement is incorrect, because incomplete. The words were: "Let those who say that there are beings seemingly human, now upon the earth, who are not of Adam's race, prove their assertion; let them tell us *who* they are and *where* they are." In view of the fact that the argument on the other side is mainly built upon alleged diversities so great that all men now upon the earth could not have descended from the Scriptural Adam, this demand is a very rational and pertinent one. Do all except the Caucasian, as they are called, belong to the unadamic and the Christless lines? If not, *who* and *where* are they? The question is capable of an answer, though it may be but an opinion, and those who so confidently build their argument for preadamic races on these alleged diversities are bound to give it. It is not, therefore, a challenge to prove a negative; and there was, moreover, no "daring" in the business. T. L.

EXECUTIVE RESPONSIBILITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I cannot refrain from uttering an "Amen" to your last article about our "Case." You say most justly that "any member of the British, German, French, Italian, or Belgian Parliament can get up and compel the Foreign Minister to state then and there why he did this or left that undone in his management of foreign affairs. But our President and the State Department are almost as secure from all enquiries as the Venetian Council of Ten in its palmiest days."

Is it true, however, that this evil is any greater in the State than in the other departments? Mr. Boutwell was sustained in his action as to refunding by a purely party majority, and the same instrumentality keeps the country in a state of mystification as to the principles on which the finances are conducted which would soon be unravelled if individuals had the power of direct enquiry. At this moment there are five committees of investigation examining, at great expenditure of money and time, into different branches of executive conduct. It was thought that the friends of the Administration showed great folly as well as wrongheadedness in opposing fair enquiry by committees. But they were wise enough in their generation to see that all the harm the committee could do lay in its appointment as implying doubt. They knew that before the report could appear, the public attention would have passed on to other topics. A large mass of printing would be placed on file, and some newspapers might comment on it, but the public at large would know little but the fact that the Administration was accused, and might therefore be guilty. The absurd part of it is that within gun-shot were men who could in a half-hour's debate have done the whole work of the committees, and either have convicted of error or have triumphantly vindicated themselves before the country.

One of the questions which you propose to put to the Executive is also very striking. In discussing the subject, as I suppose, everybody does who takes any interest in it, I have maintained that our "case" was almost wholly prepared by Mr. John Bancroft Davis, and that the country was committed to back up a position which endangers our relations with Great Britain simply that the ambition of that gentleman might be gratified. It is said that Mr. Evarts, after perusing it, laid it down with the remark that it was a "stump speech." Now, if you and I have come to this conclusion, may there not be hundreds or thousands of others who would like an authoritative answer to this question? Such an answer would probably do more than anything else to induce the people to consider whether our position is well founded. But whatever might be its value, one thing is pretty certain, that we shall not get it.

It is not merely, however, in executive responsibility that we fail, but equally so in efficiency. The other day in the cars, an officer of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was speaking of the transport of animals from Texas and intermediate points to the East, and said that not only great cruelty and danger to the public health, but also pecuniary loss to shippers, might be avoided by proper laws regulating transport. A listener observed that to get such laws would require an executive scheme backed by the voice of the people; that now they could only be lobbied through Congress. The officer assented, and said that if he had a million of dollars he would at once go to work to buy up votes. Here was a gentleman devoting his time and efforts to a cause of purely Christian charity, and that in behalf of those from whom no voice of reward could be expected, yet who would not scruple to resort to means, as being the only ones practicable,

which would tend directly to the corruption and demoralization of the people. The truth is, that no great public question, as tariff and civil-service reform, can be carried unless by the same methods as are used to obtain a land-grant and a railroad charter, and we all know what chance principles have against private interest in such a conflict. When will people begin to see that direct communication by the Executive with its constituents—the whole people—instead of allowing that communication to be monopolized by the local interests of which Congress is composed, is absolutely essential to the permanent stability of our institutions? What sort of a plank would it make in a party platform?

G. B.

Boston, March, 25, 1872.

Notes.

A WORK which neither Arnold's Life nor any other memorial of Lincoln has indisposed the public to examine is Ward H. Lamon's "True Life of Abraham Lincoln," embracing his most important and confidential correspondence, announced by J. R. Osgood & Co. This house has also in preparation: "Poetry and Criticism," by R. W. Emerson, and "Art Education, Scholastic and Industrial," by Walter Smith, State Director of Art Education in Massachusetts.—"An Open Question," by James De Mille, is announced by D. Appleton & Co.—George Routledge & Sons will publish a new edition of "Men of the Time," brought down to date, and—what is of some consequence—revised as to its American biographies by an American editor. Also, "Discoveries and Inventions of the Nineteenth Century," by John Henry Pepper, profusely illustrated; and "Gems of Prose," selected by Charles Mackay.—"The Story of the Plébisците," and Dean Stanley's "Lectures on the Church of Scotland," are in the press of Scribner, Armstrong & Co.—"Joseph Mazzini: His Life, Writings, and Political Principles, chiefly from Autobiographic Sources," is announced by Hurd & Houghton.

—Mr. Charles Collins, a director of the Mercantile Library, recently addressed a letter to the Rev. Dr. Washburn, Rector of Calvary, in which he recounts that he and all the other directors desired to throw their reading-room open on Sunday; that he and they desired this because they know that thousands of their subscribers are clerks and salesmen who live in hall-bed-rooms and other comfortless places, and who are apt to walk the streets on Sundays, or waste their time in worse places; that knowing many of these young men to be too poor to pay pew-rent, too proud to beg a free seat in church, and constantly exposed to temptation as well as to discomfort, the directors unanimously passed a resolution opening the reading-room on all holidays, including Sundays, and submitted it to the Clinton Hall Association—a board of incorporators who own the Library Association building, and whose tenants the directors are; that these gentlemen, having considered the resolution, replied that they could not comply with it, closing their answer with these words: And with the laws of God and the laws of our country relating to that day before us, we recommend, etc., etc., etc. What Mr. Collins wishes from Dr. Washburn is an answer to the question whether or not the opening of the reading-room would really be, as asserted by the trustees, an infraction of the laws of God, and, if so, which law, and Dr. Washburn complies with his request in a letter which Mr. Collins has put into print. In this paper, Dr. Washburn says at the outset, in effect, that the Sunday is one thing, and the Sabbath of the Jews is another, for he remarks that, in his opinion, the authority of the Sunday does not rest upon the Decalogue, but on the law of Apostolic and Christian history, which gives us that day as the feast of the resurrection; and he thinks it would be eminently in the spirit of Christ's teaching to give some thousands of poor clerks and apprentices a means of spending the commemorative day in improving their minds and morals. To the objection that the opening of reading-rooms would be a step toward the license of "a Continental Sunday," Dr. Washburn replies that it is well to ask "how far the strictness of past usages has provoked the license of to-day." It is certainly a very pertinent question; as also are the questions whether we shall make the day less holy by making it more happy; and whether we shall increase the authority of the Sunday by making it odious to the child, irksome to the workman, perhaps depraving, as well as irksome, to the apprentice and clerk. It is desirable, Dr. Washburn thinks, that there should be more of a reverend piety, but it is also very desirable that there should be more of what a sound divine has styled "faith in a good God and in common sense." He would go further than to say that good Christians may not only enjoy their own library on the Sunday, and may throw open larger libraries to poor people; he would insist upon the opening of the libraries to the poor people as a Christian duty. These views were not particularly new, for this is a question which has been much discussed in one place after another, and is a question

which it is not necessary to discuss very long before the subject is exhausted and a conclusion reached. We suppose the natural reaction against the horrors of the Puritan Sabbath would before this have removed American Sabbatarianism even more thoroughly than it has, had the revulsion not been partially checked by the Roman Catholic Sunday's being put before us too suddenly and carelessly.

—It was the Roman Catholic Sunday rather than the "Continental Sunday" or the "Infidel German Sunday" that delayed the final ruin of the Americo-Hebraic Sabbath. As imported to these peaceful shores by a peasantry the finest in the world, indeed, but individually so constituted that no soul of them could turn a hand over without somehow giving the true-born New Englander a shock, the Roman Catholic Sunday was a rock of great offence and stumbling. It began in the morning with the mass, which was Popish, and the confession of sins to a man, which to the Yankee mind was almost inconceivable, and was entirely disgusting—unless, indeed, it were done in the Small Vestry at Evening Meeting, or from the anxious seat in the Larger Vestry. The mass and absolution were followed by a day of out-and-out relaxation—the men smoking short pipes, joking the girls, and taking a drop now and then, the younger fry roaming the fields or swimming in shoals in the river or the pond, and some little Cassidy of them getting himself drowned each summer, and pointing a moral for the envious little Eleazars and Justins who would fain have run his risk for the sake of the ducking and the Sabbath-breaking. Then came the evening, and, as was not unlikely, it was an evening of occasional wild hoots, of uproarious and dismal howling, of wranglings, of contentions, of protracted screeching between Mrs. Murphy and Mrs. Conlan, of an active personal contest between Mr. Conlan and Mrs. Murphy's son Owen; the latter armed with the axe, and Mr. Conlan, in his haste to defend himself, with one piece of furniture after another, and, finally, with a scythe borrowed for him by his nephew. Nobody who knows what the "Limerick" quarter of our towns used to be twenty years ago, how frequently the Sabbath night was made hideous by the misplaced outeries of some of its residents, all of whom seldom got into bed three Sundays running without a visit from the town constable, will wonder that after the advent of the Irish Sunday the Yankee clung with renewed tenacity to his traditionary beans in the morning, his three sessions of "meeting" in God's house, his Sabbath-school at noon, his funeral length of visage—to all Jewish rigidity of ceremonial preciseness with which he observed his Lord's Day. It certainly, as he managed it, was no day for a human being; and, but for the whiskey, and the black eyes, and the Monday morning necessity of going bail for your friend Doorly before you could get the week's work begun, Mr. Doorly's Sunday might have had an ameliorating effect upon Dr. Hopkins's—though, as we have said, the true Yankee and the Irishman have a wonderful talent for misunderstanding each other, or of failing to understand any but the bad points of each other. Then the Sunday beer-drinking of the Germans, and their habit of laughing and talking in the open air after church, offends the American's notion of what is "respectable" as well as his respect for what he holds sacred. But nothing, we suppose, will long prevent so small a modification of our exacting practice as the opening of libraries on Sunday. It cannot be shown that the audiences in the church would not by-and-by have more recruits from the reading-rooms than the reading-rooms ever will have from the church audiences. The church, at any rate, should prefer to think so, one would say, and should be willing to see the experiment tried.

—A member of the General Court of Massachusetts could hardly aspire to a more useful position than that of representative of the State Board of Health—we mean, by making it his business to see that the legislation proposed by the Board in its annual reports is duly enacted. The third of these reports has now been published, and, like that of last year, is full of scientific testimony on a variety of topics which concern the daily habits and practice of the people, not only of Massachusetts, but of all parts of the country, conveyed, too, in simple and perspicuous language not above the popular comprehension. The third paper, for example, is on "Arsenic in certain Green Colors," and the Board, not content with describing the fabrics to be avoided on account of the presence of arsenic in them, binds in with the text three sheets of green paper of whose coloring it has procured a chemical analysis, and which therefore at once instruct the eye both as to the general aspect of paper thus colored and as to the relative amount of arsenic employed. Further on, we have a highly valuable discussion of the question whether the sewing-machine is injurious to the health of women, the conclusion being that, in domestic use, it is not likely to be so, but that in factories not making use of steam-power it can hardly fail to be; and, as the question turns upon the motion of the treadle, cuts are given of two improved treadles which appear to obviate the evils of the one generally in

vogue. Again, Dr. Bowditch's elaborate review of the wide range of testimony published last year on the use of stimulants in all countries is illustrated by a map of the world, appropriately colored, showing the areas of drinking and drunkenness, of vine-growing, of light wines and ardent spirits, and their relation to the climate—for one thing, that intemperance is everywhere very rife above 50° Fahr. isothermal line. Some of the other papers in this admirable collection relate to "Mill-Dams and other Water Obstructions," "Adulterations and Impurities of Food," "Vegetable Parasites, and the Diseases caused by their Growth upon Man," etc., etc.

—While copying or intending to copy from England some of her devices for facilitating the speed of intelligence, we might do well to borrow an idea from the Meteorological Office, which proposes to issue lithographic charts illustrative of the daily weather report. "These," says the *Athenæum*, "will be forwarded from the office of the printer between 1 and 2 o'clock p.m. each day, and sent by post to any part of the kingdom upon payment of 5s. per quarter. In addition to the returns from forty stations, charts of the British Isles and a portion of the Continent are given, showing the movements of the barometer and thermometer, the conditions of the wind and sea, and the quantity of cloud and rain." With such a practice as this, we should imagine that great light could be thrown on the nature and extent of the local disturbances which still, in a large percentage of cases, falsify the predictions of our efficient signal service.

—For other than religious readers, the English book-lists are not just now especially attractive, though there are some excellent works announced. The following are some of the new books: "Socrates" is the latest volume of the pretty and useful "Bayard Series"—all excellent as presents for boys, by the way—and is a new translation from the "Memorabilia" of Xenophon, with good notes by Mr. Edward Leven. Doubtless it would amuse some of our irreverent readers to peruse the latest of Mr. Beeton's penny books; it is a "Life of His Royal Highness, Albert Edward, Prince of Wales," and consists of sixty-four octavo pages, which Mr. Beeton has no doubt made worth the money. Messrs. Ward, Lock & Tyler are the publishers. "Men of the Second Empire" is by "The Member for Paris," and will be found very lively reading. Mr. Robert Black begins a translation of Guizot's "History of France," and other works translated, or in process of translation, are the Duc d'Aumale's "History of the Princes Condé"; A. G. De Cassagnac's "History of the Working and Burgher Classes"; the fourth volume of Curtius's "Greece"; and the "Memoirs of Baron Stockmar." To this department of history and biography belong also these other new books: Mr. Henry Reeves's "Royal and Republican France"; Sir Edward Creasy's "Imperial and Colonial Constitution of the British Empire"; Mr. E. A. Freeman's "Growth of the English Constitution from the Earliest Times"; a very welcome "Aristotle," by Mr. Grote; the sixth volume of Mr. Spedding's "Life and Letters of Bacon"; a volume of Diplomatic Reminiscence, by the Hon. John Ward; a volume of recollections of "The Radical Years 1817 and 1820 in Kilmarnock," by Mr. James Patterson, who appears to have been a hot reform politician, and, no doubt, has a lively story of partisanship to relate; and finally, a volume for theatre-goers, containing a collection of criticisms, personal descriptions, and anecdotes of celebrated English actors of the last three centuries.

—Outside of History and Biography, we have first a promised volume of essays and lectures on social and political subjects, by Professor Fawcett and Millicent Garrett Fawcett; a volume, perhaps of the same general character, announced as being "Notes of Thoughts and Conversations," by "A Manufacturer"; and a volume entitled "Stray Thoughts," short essays on ethical, social, and other subjects, by J. R. Prettyman. For the reader of fiction, we see very little. A novel called "The Queen of the Regiment," by Katharine King, a new writer, is one of three solitary announcements in the last *Bookseller*; but we see it praised for being unbigamous, for being neither "horsey" nor "doggy," though it deals with military men and military life; for a taintless purity and freshness of thought; for gleefulness, heartiness, and ease of style; for being neither slangy, nor vulgar, nor sentimental, but, on the contrary, brave and original; for having a captivating girl as its heroine; for having among its heroes no blackguard, no bully, no roué, no fop; and for manifesting youth, health, high spirits, and feminine taste—all of which certainly sounds like a readable book for the novel-reader—if, indeed, she likes all of these things. It is Mr. Charles Reade who says that the sex of the novel-reader is feminine; and some of the novels written for her would throw a doubt upon her likings. But a famine in fiction no doubt we shall not suffer, the magazines being sure to keep up the supply. Under the head of Poetry there is still less to notice than under the head of Fiction. Indeed, we find nothing except it be the fact that Mr. Howells's "Their Wedding Journey" is so placed in the *Bookseller's* classified list.

—One of the leading Sanskrit scholars of the world passed away early

last month—Theodor Goldstücker, professor in University College, London. He was of Hebrew descent, and came from Germany to England about 1850. He was a man of immense erudition, and in two departments of Hindu literature, especially grammar and philosophy, is believed to have had no equal as regards extent of reading and mastery of details. His untimely death will be the more lamented inasmuch as he has left almost nothing to represent his learning, and as hopes were entertained of important additions to knowledge yet to come from him. He had a remarkable indisposition to finishing up anything and letting it go from his hands: the only thing of importance which he ever produced was an introduction on "Panini's Place in Sanskrit Literature," which, along with great learning and strong convictions, showed also a want of logic and narrowness of criticism which seem to have been characteristic of him. In matters of learning, an intense conservatism was one of his leading qualities. He was long an active member of the Philological Society of London, and at the time of his death held the office of its President: of his many communications to it, hardly one, it is believed, ever got into print. It is greatly to be hoped that he has left material to be gathered up and published. He had great enthusiasm and earnestness, and his long labors may yet bear fruit in the persons of pupils whom he has trained and inspired with zeal for scholarship. He exhausted himself during the last months of his life over the comparatively useless labor of producing a photo-lithographic copy of an Indian grammatical manuscript, and an attack of bronchitis, neglected in its early stages, carried him off suddenly, at the age of about fifty.

—The liberal Protestants of Paris have not met with success in the recent elections to fill vacancies in their *conseil presbytéral*. There were eight candidates in all to be chosen, and in each case the orthodox party carried the day. M. Guizot, however, only succeeded at the second polling, his opponent being the commander at Belfort, who held that place against the Germans till the end of the war. His coming lowest on the list—owing, on the one hand, to his unpopularity among the liberals, who look upon him as a persecutor, and, on the other, to the distrust with which the orthodox regard his Protestantism—was attended with some inconvenience to his party. According to usage, the Presbyterial Council had announced before the election that the six highest candidates would be considered as appointed to the six-year vacancies, and the two lowest to the three-year—practically, five and two-year, as the elections were delayed a year on account of the war. Two years hence, however, if religious freedom is protected in France, it is more than probable that M. Guizot would be rejected altogether, and deposed from the authority that he has so long enjoyed, and, as the liberals say, abused. To obviate this, the Paris Consistory has given notice that the two-year terms will be filled by the two lowest *new* candidates; thus introducing a principle of selection opposed as well to the understanding of the electors as to the explicit declaration of the council. The *Renaissance* treats this pretension as null and void, and asserts that it will be contested.

—It looks as if the long dispute between the Dutch and Germans over the invention of printing had been settled, and that Lourens Janszoon Coster would have to retire from the field, leaving Haarlem to make the most of its metal statue in honor of him. The work in which his claims are effectually set aside is, happily, by a Dutchman, Dr. van der Linde, who, indeed, has so much regard for the truth, and so much contempt for chauvinism, as to be almost passionate in exposing what he calls the "Coster villany." Errors and frauds he discovers without number, beginning with Koning, who vindicated the Haarlem claims in 1816, and who mixed up Coster with another Lourens Janszoon, who died, conveniently for his purpose, in 1439, whereas Coster lived till 1447 at least. De Jonghe's original ascription of the invention to Coster is also shown not to hold water, and to be fatally at fault in its dates; and the pretended pedigree of Coster is pronounced a forgery unique of its kind. Coster's first work, "Speculum Humane Salvationis," Dr. van der Linde says, must have been printed between 1470 and 1480, or thereabouts, that sort of literature having flourished during the last quarter of the fifteenth century, "just as the 'Mysteries' of all the capitals of Europe formed a separate popular literature in the second quarter of *our* century." The translator furnishes an introduction to this work, summing up the controversy since its appearance in Dutch, and adds a classified list of forty-three works attributed to Coster's press.

ELZE'S "LORD BYRON." *

FIRST and last a small library has been written about Byron, but we believe we have here the best single volume about him that can anywhere be found. This we say because of the goodness of Professor Elze's

* "Lord Byron: A Biography. With a Critical Essay on his Place in Literature. By Karl Elze." Translated, with Notes. London: John Murray; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1873.

critical work, and because the editor's notes often supplement and sometimes correct Professor Elze's fairly good biographical work. The two together, author and editor, have made a volume convenient in point of size, yet on the whole sufficiently full in narrative, which has the advantage over all other books on the same subject that it appears so late as to afford opportunity for a more judicial estimate of the poet's writings than has always been made, and the further advantage that it appears at a time when there has been much profitable investigation into the poet's character. Nevertheless, we think that it will not be hard to make future editions of this biography better than this one. In our judgment, the translator would consult the interest both of the book and the reader if he would considerably enlarge the notes. For instance, Moore's "Life of Byron" is not an inaccessible work; but it is not now read by one in ten of the readers who will go through a comparatively brief volume like this of Professor Elze's, and clearly it would be better if the editor, instead of referring us now and again to such and such a page of Moore, were to quote what is there said either as it there stands or in substance. Most of the references to other writers are made as now is customary, namely, so that readers doubting one's statements may look for themselves at the evidence on which they are based or at the words of the original authors of them. Moore's "Life," on the other hand, is referred to as if it were still read by everybody, as it certainly is not in this country, and as it probably is ceasing to be in England—a thing not to be regretted so far as concerns anything of his own that Moore put into it.

And as with the notes, so also in regard to quotations from the poet's verses; we think that Professor Elze's critical labors might be made more generally useful if the passages quoted were considerably more numerous. Although it is by less of a fiction in the case of Byron than in the case of some other poets that everybody is presumed to have his words in memory, it is nevertheless truer than an all-digesting German student of him might suppose that over much of his poetry oblivion has already stolen, and that over still more of it oblivion is stealing. For example, apparently it would surprise Professor Elze to be informed that "The Island," of which he thinks so well, is a poem not thought of at all, well or ill, by the English-speaking readers of the poet. Thus it is that the gods sell us their gifts, giving us nothing for nothing, and, if we belong to a nation of erudite commentators on poets, we partly pay for this honor of knowing more about them than other people by knowing rather differently about them than the nation which produces the poets. The party of English gentlemen to whom, as Sir Henry Holland relates, the Herr von Schlegel civilly remarked, that "if Englishmen wished to understand Shakespeare, they must go to Germany," might perhaps have consoled themselves with this reflection.

As to the wit, the eloquence, the fewness and barrenness of the ideas, the passion, the masculine energy, the gloom, the vanity, the cynicism, the personal force, the haughty pride, the spirit in disease—to use that word in its etymological sense—as to all these it will be safe, we suppose, for some generations yet, to leave the unaided reader to discover and feel them, and it will be fair to presume that illustrative passages are pretty thoroughly in his mind. Yet, even so, the reader's perception of the critic's judgments and his testing of them are greatly assisted if with the judgment is presented the illustrative passage. Still more desirable is this when the question is of the less obvious merits and demerits of a poet—as of the melody, sweet and strong, of Byron's best lyrical music; the habitual inferiority and frequent badness of his blank verse; the great skill with which he conducted in musical verse a train of reasoning—a trait of his poetry first pointed out, we think, by Mr. F. T. Palgrave, and which he illustrates by citing the lines "To Thirza." To vivify Professor Elze's very good criticism by bringing into court the poet himself, with the evidence which he can so much better give than any one else, would greatly increase the permanent value of this volume.

Good criticism we have called Professor Elze's, and good it is, but it is not in all cases to be accepted without abatement. The key to what is perhaps the faultiest part of it is probably to be found in these words of Goethe's, spoken in 1824 we believe, and of which the extravagance is partly to be excused by the fact that the poet was then newly dead: "Now," says Goethe, "the conviction uplifts us that his nation will suddenly awake from the frenzied fits of censure and invective which burst forth on him to sobriety of judgment, and will understand that all the husks and dross of the individual and his time, through which and out of which the best has to work his way, were only momentary, fleeting, and perishable, whereas the astonishing fame to which he has now and for ever raised his country remains boundless in its glory and incalculable in its effects." And Professor Elze dwells at much length on Byron as the introducer of literary England to foreign nations before unacquainted with her; Byron as the poet who inspired Lamartine with the sentimental world-sorrow—*Weltschmerz*—which is breathed by "Childe Harold"; who inspired De Musset with the cynical world-sorrow revealed in "Don Juan"; who inspired Vic-

tor Hugo, Casimir de la Vigne, many other Frenchmen, Don Jose de Espronceda, greatest of recent Spanish poets, and Giovanni Berchet, celebrated in Italy; who set multitudes of young Germans half-crazy; whose poetic tales, glowing with passion, aroused all the Slavic East, previously reached only by the literature of France. Let all this be admitted for truth, and still it is not so good when considered as literary criticism as it is when taken as a contribution to the history of literature, and in no sense justifies anybody in placing Byron where Professor Elze places him, above every other English poet except Shakespeare. To inspire De la Vigne, De Mussets, Pushkins, to be read in a dozen languages at once, is to be a tremendous literary and spiritual force, no doubt; but it does not make a man an English poet who may take his seat beside Milton and above Chaucer, Spenser, and Wordsworth. The magnificent Milton, with all of the pride of spirit that possessed Byron and set him at war with heaven, earth, and himself, making his life a chaos, was further gifted with an intellectual power and a commanding force of will which compelled and subjected his passions and feelings, methodizing, controlling, and ordering his whole life, both outward and inward; and, as his last gift, the result of mental, moral, and physical grace and strength in happy union, he was endowed with a perception of the beautiful which enabled him to work with an artist's hand to the production of complete results. What fine lines and tens of lines are in comparison with finished poems; what Lara is to Satan, and Manfred to Samson—

"Eyeless, in Gaza, at the mill, with slaves,"

and yet hero and demigod; what the tossing of the wave is to the movement of the tidal stream, is what Byron is when weighed in the balance against Milton.

We should say that Professor Elze's error in allowing in his estimate of Byron's poetry too much weight to the extraordinary effect which his career had upon the literature and politics of his generation, is further complicated by another error. He appears to be a little ridden by his professional character and functions, and to have been partly led astray by something which looks a little like critical pedantry. There are four principal orders of poetry, he says, and in each England has produced a poet of unsurpassed genius. Shakespeare is unsurpassed in dramatic poetry, Milton in reflective poetry, Scott in epic poetry, and Byron in lyrical poetry. Had it not been requisite to have four departments of poetry and a distinguished name for each, we should have supposed that a writer who says so many good things about poetry as Professor Elze, would not have brought Scott into this company, nor hardly have described his poems as epics, epical though they be. And although Byron's muse was grandly lyrical in voice and gesture, it would be going far to say that of English lyrics of their various kinds he has produced any that are in their kind unsurpassed by the work of other poets, his inferiors in force of feeling and sensitive power, or weakness, but not his inferiors in other requisites of the poet. Nor, but for the four departments and the necessity of making Scott represent one of them, should we, it is probable, have had Milton designated as the leader of the Reflectives—a singular term to apply to his poems, which, apart from the lovely delicacy, the refined elegance and picturesqueness of the smaller imaginations, are essentially epics.

We have indicated at some length the sources of certain defects which the reader will meet with in this work, though all the defects themselves we have of course not indicated; but it is, as we have said, a very good book, and may reasonably content the reader of Byron both as biography and as criticism. It may be worth while to say that the author and the editor are extremely severe upon the Stowe-Byron accusation, which both regard as destitute of probability, and that they present us with the popular rather than with what may be called the Miss Martineau view of Lady Byron's character.

EDUCATIONAL TEXT-BOOKS.

THE several works belonging to the series known as the "Student's Histories" (Harper & Bros.) differ considerably from one another in character and value. Three of them—the student's Gibbon, Hume, and Hallam—are abridgments of the *chefs d'auteur* of these eminent historians; but even these stand on a very various footing. Gibbon's great work has no rival in the ground which it covers, but it is so voluminous that very few read it in full nowadays except professed scholars. It was, therefore, every way desirable that its most important parts should be culled out, and put by themselves in a form adapted to the general student and reader. This has been done with great judgment in the edition before us; there is, perhaps, as much to be said for as against the leaving out those portions which are most characteristic of the author, but at the same time most offensive to the majority of readers. With Hume it is different. He is still extensively read, and that not by students, but by the general public. His merits are literary, not scho-

lastic. Gibbon is still the undisputed foundation for study on a great part of the period of which he treats; but no one thinks of going to Hume for special information as to any period, but to Kemble, Freeman, Hallam, and—with all their faults—Froude and Macaulay. Any abridgment can hardly fail to hurt a book whose merit is distinctively literary; and there is no reason, as in Gibbon's case, why persons who have not time to read the whole should desire selections from this, rather than a new and independent work. In short, we have no doubt that there are a hundred persons now living who could make a better history of England of its size than an abridgment of Hume. Still this is a good and serviceable book. It may be remarked, by the way, that the editor has found it necessary to expurgate Hume's Toryism as well as Gibbon's infidelity. Hallam stands on a different footing from either Gibbon or Hume. We welcomed the "Student's Hallam" when it first appeared some months ago, and have no disposition to take back anything that we said then. Further examination, however, has shown that it is defective, not so much in what the editor has done, as in what he has not done. Hallam's merit, like Gibbon's, is in his matter; but whereas Gibbon's history is the matured result of finished investigations, Hallam's was one of the steps in such investigations. He was one of the earliest, most industrious, and judicious of those students who have in the present century revolutionized our knowledge of mediæval institutions; but in the very fact that he was one of the earliest lies the reason why he is not fitted to be our teacher now. He was a worthy co-worker with Guizot, Thierry, and Palgrave; but another step forward has been taken by the generation of Waitz, Roth, Giesebrecht, and Von Maurer. The editor has added to the original work some excellent passages from English writers, which add much to its value. But he has not attempted to incorporate the results of the latest enquiries, and, in fact, we doubt whether it is possible to make of these chapters a treatise which should be satisfactory in the present stage of scholasticism on these subjects. We speak, of course, only of the chapters on institutions, which are those most characteristic of the author; the historical chapters, if somewhat heavy, still retain their value.

We turn next to those volumes of this series which are original works. Dr. Smith's "History of Greece" is every way an admirable work, but President Felton's edition (Brewer & Tileston) is much superior to that of this series. Dr. Liddell's "History of Rome" is, as a history, marked by very high excellences. It is written with good judgment, in a graphic style, and shows careful scholarship. Its chief defect is one which is literally fatal to its pretensions as a work of the first rank; we mean its inadequate treatment of the Roman Constitution. This defect in a history of Rome is like the play of "Hamlet" with the part of *Hamlet* omitted. The author shows no acquaintance with the late development of views in Germany upon this subject. To be sure, when he wrote Mommsen was hardly known in England; but this is no excuse for a prominent English scholar who sets out to write a history of Rome. Mr. Philip Smith's "Ancient History of the East" is also excellent. It is considerably briefer than Lenormant and Chevallier's "Manual," and, at the same time, covers less ground—part of this is, however, made up by the "Student's Old Testament History." It is also more graphic in style, and less crowded with detail. Both books may fairly be criticised in that neither of them is a "History of the East" properly speaking, but rather of the nations of the East individually. In both we miss a general view of the course of empire in these regions in the early ages—a want which it is easier to supply in detail from M. Lenormant's "Manual" than from Mr. Smith's. The "Manual" again gives a great deal of very desirable information on the arts, religion, literature, etc., of these people, which the work before us has to pass over cursorily. This lack is, however, made up in part by the illustrations, which the other book does not contain. Both grope helplessly in attempting to reconcile the historical fact that the Canaanites and Phœnicians spoke a Semitic language with the Scripture genealogy, which makes Canaan the son of Ham; Mr. Smith has recourse to the not very encouraging suggestion that in the fact that Canaan was Ham's youngest son may have lain a hint of some ethnic affinity with the Semites; but he proceeds to demolish this theory in the next paragraph by saying that the language of the Cushites also was Semitic. As might be expected, he sides with the English scholars against the French in chronology of the early Assyrian Empire, and certainly with good reason, so far as can be judged by one who is not an expert; but we wish he had taken pains to place before his readers, in a comprehensive form, the arguments in favor of each theory. The "History of France," the name of whose author is not given, is a book of a good deal of merit. It is written in an interesting style and a fair spirit, and will give the reader a pretty good idea of the events of the mediæval period. The institutions likewise receive due attention for a work of this scope, and there are excellent genealogical tables. When, however, the author approaches the complications and bewildering details of modern times, he shows a total lack of two important powers—of seizing upon essential points to the neglect

of trifling ones; and of grouping events in such a way as to impress them upon the memory. Nothing could be more confusing to the young reader than the account of the Huguenot wars and the wars of Louis XIV., simply because he is overwhelmed with a multiplicity of bewildering details having no apparent connection with one another, and no adequate emphasis laid upon the most important. The story is crowded with names and dates, while international relations and the facts of historical geography are left very much in the dark. The Revolution and subsequent times are treated much more satisfactorily. In the genealogical table, p. 4-4, the important fact is left out that Louis XIV., as well as Leopold I., was grandson of Philip III.

As a whole, these books deserve high praise for the numerous original documents and discussions on fundamental and recondite points that are introduced; and especially for the illustrations, which are of just the sort that help to throw light upon the facts of history. We wish that the compilers of American histories would take a lesson from this series, and introduce genuine illustrations into their books, instead of made-up sensational pictures.

Crosby's "Greek Grammar" (Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co.) has always ranked as one of the most creditable works of American scholarship. Its somewhat metaphysical character was an attraction to a great many, although interfering in some degree with its success in ordinary classes; on the other hand, there was a peculiar symmetry and completeness in its processes which made it remarkably efficient in class drill. Accuracy in things great and small is eminently characteristic of the author, and we venture to predict that there will be found fewer misprints in this new edition than in any Greek book of its size ever printed in this country. The new edition preserves all the merits of the old, and avoids some of its defects. Among the marked improvements, we would notice the table of irregular verbs (\$.50), in which the old edition was very inconvenient, and the rearrangement of conditional sentences (§§. 631-4), in which Prof. Goodwin's analysis is adopted, not, however, without some modifications.

Prof. McIlvaine's "Elocution" (Scribner) would be a much better book if it were only half as large. It is prepared on what we consider the faulty plan of introducing each section by a sentence, which states in full the doctrine of the section; these sentences were no doubt originally the syllabus of a course of lectures. For this purpose they are excellent—terse, forcible, and judicious—and no doubt they would do good service in this capacity; but when it comes to expanding them in a book, the result can hardly fail to be diffuse and commonplace, for it is felt to be a duty to expand them, while in many cases no expansion is required at all. The book contains, therefore, an unusual proportion of mere padding; this apart, it is in the main judicious, well-arranged, and calculated to do good. We like especially the sections on self-control as a source of power to the orator. Mr. Coates's "Comprehensive Speaker" (Porter & Coates) is an excellent selection of pieces for declamation and reading. We think it a mistake, in the prose selections, to include so many familiar and standard extracts. Probably, if the number of books could be counted that contain Webster's eulogium on Massachusetts, Lord Chatham on the war with America, Grattan's reply to Mr. Corry, and twenty others that we could pick out from this volume, it would not come far from the number of towns in the United States named after Washington and Jefferson. What is wanted is a collection of exclusively fresh extracts—such as many that we find in these pages. Lord Erskine, for instance, would afford quite a number of admirable pieces, hardly familiar at all to the present generation of boys. The "Poetical Selections" are, in this respect, relatively better than the prose, and contain many very desirable pieces. We note an historical error in the last explanatory note on p. 672, where Gustavus Vasa is called "the rightful king" of Sweden. He became a rightful king, but he was not born to the throne. Mr. Cathcart's "Youth's Speaker" (Iverson, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.) is, on the other hand, best in its prose selections, which are fresh and brief, very well adapted for school use. The pieces of verse have the merit of being fitted for the use of quite young scholars. The dialogues we do not like—although perhaps they are as good as can be found in that very dismal branch of literature. These are almost, without exception, dull and stilted; the boys and girls are either priggish or vulgar. After all, is there anything better in this line than our old friends "King Alfred" and "Alexander and the Robber"? It is a real pleasure to take up such a school-book as Monroe's "Fifth Reader" (Cowperthwaite & Co.), by the accomplished Superintendent of Elocution of the Boston Schools. It is rare that a book for the use of common schools shows any marks of a refined taste; but this book is tasteful from beginning to end—the brief, practical rules of elocution, the fresh and interesting selections, the whole getting-up of the volume, and especially the illustrations, which are the best we have

ever seen in a school reader. A book like this, put in the hands of a class, is a real instrument of civilization.

Word-building, as treated in most text-books, can hardly be of much service to pupils who are unacquainted with Latin—not because the compilers do not recognize the needs of mere English students, but because they for some reason fail to make them practically serviceable to such. Now, this is precisely the strong point of Mr. Swinton's little book, "Word Analysis" (Iverson, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.) He has succeeded in preparing rules and exercises that will, we think, really teach common-school pupils something of the structure of the words of their own language. At the same time, it is not without very grave defects. It is very well to classify as English suffixes all those, whether of English or Latin origin, which are actually used in forming new words from those already existing in the English language; so that *justify*, for example, is an illustration of English derivation, although both parts are of Latin origin. Still, there is considerable confusion of ideas in regard to these. Why, for instance, is *ion* in *navigation* (p. 19) called an English suffix, and in *probat-ion* (p. 56) a Latin one? There is, indeed, remarkable inaccuracy shown in classical derivations; on p. 108 we find *galar*, milk; *plane*, a wanderer; *zodiakos*, animal; and *epi*, away! It will be seen that the book has decided faults. These are rather in details than in anything that is essential to the plan, but it needs careful revision. The "Condensed United States History," by the same author and publishers, is on a plan that we do not like; but, inasmuch as there are a great many people who do like it, we will do justice to its merits of execution. The plan of having brief, dry, hard statements of fact, with numerous names and dates, to be learned by heart, and calling this *history*, goes upon the assumption that these names, dates, and bare events have an absolute value of their own; whereas their only value, to those who learn them, is to enable them to get into a higher grade of school, after which they are straightway forgotten, as they deserve to be. We hope the time will come when boards of education, teachers, publishers, and book-makers will understand that a book or a history is good for nothing unless it is interesting to those who are to use it. With this general reservation, we will say that Mr. Swinton's book is prepared with a good deal of skill, and that in particular the topical reviews are excellent. The arrangement is very good, and there are serviceable maps. Barnes's "Brief History" (A. S. Barnes & Co.) has just the merit that Swinton's lacks. It is a very well-told story, that we should think would engage the attention of pupils, and impress the knowledge of the events upon the memory. We appreciate the paucity of names and dates, and the abundance of interesting incidents, many of which, too, are added in foot-notes. We are surprised that the story of Pocahontas is still given as a fact. With its other illustrations, the book has some good maps and portraits, but is very defective in plans of battles and campaigns.

Sir Charles Lyell is always sure of a welcome for his works, even when they come in garments many times made over and a little out of fashion. The "Student's Elements" (Harper & Bros.) will be recognized by the old student as the "Elements of Geology," which, with its bigger brother, the "Principles," was his best friend years ago. Looking closely to its shape, he will find that much of the original matter has gone, though what remains has been a good deal worked over and mended to suit the great changes of the science. The author's object has been to limit the "Elements" to what the name implies, leaving the discussion of the more general questions to his "Principles of Geology," its complement and deserving fellow in every student's library. With this view, he has materially reduced the bulk of the volume. This condensation has been so managed as to increase the value of the book to the English student, while it deprives it of much of its usefulness as a *vade mecum* to the American beginner in the science. He has as far as possible limited himself in the selection of examples to the geological phenomena of Europe, and especially of England; for instance, in the chapter on silurian rocks, twenty pages are given to the rocks of Great Britain and but two to the more extensive and, geologically, more important beds of the same age in this country. Over forty figures are given to the European and only one to the American fossils of these rocks. These facts are enough to exclude the work as an American text-book, though they do not lessen its value to the student who can afford to own several works on the science. The most serious objection to the book is that it has retained the very objectionable order of arrangement in that part which is devoted to the consecutive stages of the earth's history. In place of beginning with the earliest known forms of life, and proceeding, step by step, to its successive stages of development, he begins with the present time, and then takes in reverse order the formations down to the lowest known beds containing life. In geological history, each stage is as much dependent upon that which preceded it as in the history of a nation. The reader would, it is true, gain something if, knowing English history well, he should start from the present and work back in the same order of occurrence over all the facts

there recorded, but he would not do well to begin his studies in that way. The most serious criticism which can be brought against the work is the way in which the question concerning the genus *Eozoön* is set forth. This fossil is represented as organic, the opinions of Dawson, Carpenter, and Jones being given, while no reference is made to those able naturalists who have contested that conclusion. Withal, the book is an admirable condensation of the important results of the science.

The reprint is not very well made; some liberty has been taken with the outside title, so as to bring it into the "Student's Series" of the reprinters. The paper is poor, the engravings want the clearness of the originals. The student who can afford it is recommended to buy the original edition, though the American is much the cheapest.

With the excellent works of Dana, Lyell, and others in existence, and kept well up to date by careful revision from time to time, some reasonable excuse may fairly be demanded for an addition to our array of elementary works on geology. There should assuredly be some difference in matter or some change in the point of view from which the principal questions are considered, in order to secure a place for a new book in a field which has been so extensively occupied. We are unable to see that Prof. Alleyne Nicholson's "Text-Book of Geology" (D. Appleton & Co.) has this *raison d'être*. Although unobjectionable in most important points, there are portions of the book which do not fairly represent the views of the scientific men who are best entitled to an opinion on such subjects. The question of the internal condition of the earth, now one of the most doubtful points in the minds of the greater number of geologists, is passed over with a brief assertion which would lead the reader to suppose that the universal opinion was in favor of the old dogma of its fluidity. The chapter on ice action, though on the whole more successful than most efforts to introduce the results of the researches of the last few years on this point into our text-books, is marred by the same dogmatism. It asserts as a general rule that "erratic blocks" "have been carried not by glaciers, but by icebergs." This is an assertion which contradicts the opinion of about all the students who have given much attention to the subject. We have also the assertions that the coal formation is nearly always conformable to the silurian rocks, that the most important limestones are dolomites—which will not commend themselves to practical geologists.

The figures are for the most part rather rough copies from Lyell's "Elements." For these the author has had the grace to acknowledge his indebtedness. On the whole, the book is not bad as text-books go. The worst that can be said of it is that it is an easily made compilation by a man who evidently has a very fair knowledge of the subject, but who has done little more than to use the materials which other text-books supply without any effort to consult the original sources or to recast the matter.

The same author's "Text-Book of Zoology" (Appleton & Co.), compared with others having the same aim, has much to be said in its favor. It is better up to the science than the translations of Milne-Edwards's manual, and is very much better than works fashioned on the model represented in Tenney's "Zoology." Agassiz and Gould's "Elements" is in general form better suited for the beginner, but it is already out of date for want of re-editing. Of course, as Mr. Nicholson is neither a Cuvier nor a Müller in the range of his researches, there is all the imperfection shown in the book which comes from making a patchwork of the labors of men of very different views and methods of working, and putting it before the reader as an outline of the animal kingdom. This is not altogether to the author's discredit, but is, in fact, inherent in the pretension of all text-books of zoology. It might have been limited by giving the sources of the classification, or by stating when views of naturalists conflict. For want of this the student is frequently led to believe that views concerning the relations of animals, which are held by only a part, and at times a small part, of the students of the subject, are among the uncontested points in the science. There are few students in this country at least who would accept the division of the animal kingdom which makes the annuloida the third primary division, including under it the echinodermata and the scolecidia, yet the author here, as in many other cases, states the most disputed and most doubtful opinions in an *ex cathedra* way. The gravest difficulty with the book is in its omissions. There is nothing about the geographical distribution, the geological succession, or the embryonic development of animals—the great general facts which give meaning to the details of the science—except occasional and imperfect references in the descriptions of the groups. Nor is there any reference to the great questions connected with the origin of species. The book is much more limited than its title would lead the reader to suppose; it is, in fact, a text-book of systematic zoology. There are abundant points of detail where the critical eye can detect omissions, but all such objections are overborne by the considerable merits of the book. The figures, one hundred and fifty-eight in number, are pretty well chosen and reasonably well made;

many of them are original, and all of them are free from the straining after the picturesque which so often spoils such representations.

The author of "First Lessons in Physics" (Hendricks & Chittenden, St. Louis) in his preface thus introduces his book: "Its object is the presentation of a number of phenomena, laws and applications of the same, specially adapted to the perceptive capacities of the pupils of the upper grades." This is certainly a praiseworthy object. The difficulties in the way of its attainment are not very great. Every child is ready, to a greater or less degree, to notice phenomena and to ask questions: there is no difficulty in collecting a set of facts which will interest the juvenile mind and lead it to observe. The author of this little treatise does not pretend to do more. A number of laws are stated, and examples are given to be worked out by the principles stated. To do this is to do much; still, we should like to see in these modern days the child's attention directed, in a rational way, to the elements of the subject of conservation of force, and to the relations which bind the phenomena of physics together. The teaching of familiar facts alone has but little disciplinary value. Mr. Hotze gives many illustrations to bring the facts before the pupil's mind. Some of these are of rather questionable homeliness; for instance, under "gravity," p. 10: "A cat may fall from a housetop; a careless child tumbles down stairs; coals fall through the grate; meal falls through the sieve; and soot falls through the air." The occurrence first mentioned might seem highly improbable to the juvenile mind. There are also many typographical errors. On page 14 the question is asked: "For is not a pound of water as heavy as a pound of oil?" And the language is often careless; witness p. 27: "Lightning mostly passes from one cloud to another." The book, however, is evidently an earnest attempt to overcome ignorance.

The best logic for instruction in colleges is, in our judgment, Fowler's ("Elements of Deductive Logic"—New York: Macmillan). A young man who has been through it under a teacher of power will have had his mind enlightened and strengthened, and will be better prepared for life. In short, it to some extent fulfils the function of an elementary logic, a thing which most text-books do not begin to do. Mr. Fowler closely follows Mill's work, of which this must be allowed, that it represents the best scientific thought of the age more nearly than any other systematic exposition of the subject. It contains, however, in our opinion various important errors not only upon its philosophical side, but also in its relation to practice, against which the student ought to be put upon his guard. To these we have not space here to refer; but as they are of interest we shall take an early opportunity to recur to them.

The vices of American teaching are nowhere more strongly illustrated than in our arithmetics. Common arithmetic is not the theory of numbers or any part of it; it is only the art of using the decimal system of numeration. It has no theoretical value, and the only object of teaching it is to give boys and girls necessary practice in ciphering. It is therefore the simplest subject possible, and affords an admirably clear field for pedantic evolutions. Most of the books are crammed with all sorts of worthless scholastic stuff, while the simple precautions which are necessary to lead pupils into good habits of computing are entirely neglected. Mr. Sanford's "Analytical Arithmetic" (Philadelphia: Lippincott) is free from nonsense, and may be recommended; but it does not enforce attention to good habits. For this, "Orton's Lightning Calculator," in some respects a poor book, is to be preferred. Every teacher ought to be practically versed in the most useful of the rules which Orton gives (which are well-known to accountants), and to insist upon their being followed by his pupils. It would be very well if some person of common-sense and of practical experience in computing, after consulting De Morgan's Arithmetic and paper upon Numerical Computation in the "Companion to the British Almanac," would produce a new Arithmetic for schools. Let all writing-master's rules, such as those for Alligation (which serve only arbitrarily to limit the result to a single one of a large number of possible solutions) be swept away. Let the important rules of Single and Double Position be reinstated. And let the design of the whole be to make the pupil an accomplished accountant.

An elementary geometry without errors of logic does not yet exist. Any attempt to write such a book without a thorough study of the mathematical researches of Lobatchewsky, Riemann, Helmholtz, Klein, etc., as well as of the logical studies of Deleüf, Ueberweg, Hoüel, etc., or without a full appreciation of the conceptions of modern geometry and of quaternions, must prove a failure. Mr. Thomas Hunter's "Elements of Plane Geometry" (New York: Harpers) is only a fragment of Euclid, marred. We may say that his one perfect demonstration is that of his own incompetency to deal with the problem he has attacked.

We doubt if most of the children for whose juvenile understandings such countless numbers of story-books are specially prepared would not, if they were tried, repeat our experience as to such razeed literature. We remem-

ber very well how wanting in color, movement, and life seemed the "Stories from Shakespeare" to our own very juvenile understanding, already by good fortune accustomed to "Romeo and Juliet," "As You Like It," "The Two Gentlemen of Verona," and "Lear," in their undwarfed integrity. Still better, perhaps, should we have liked this excellent edition of the plays prepared by Mr. Hudson ("School Shakespeare, First Series and Second Series," Boston: Ginn Brothers). The object is to make an edition which teacher and scholar can use together as a reading-book or a parsing-book in the school-room, and to this end he has removed from the text, with a gentle hand, obnoxious words and phrases, and, with a hand not so sparing, has annotated the text in a sensible and instructive fashion. To each drama, also, there is prefixed an introduction, telling the pupil what is known of the origin of the story and the characters, and making some general criticism, always candid and intelligent, in a rare degree independent in view, and often racily and vigorously expressed. We will not say that we think there is not sometimes a taste too much of raciness in the language of these notes and criticisms; but we have enjoyed it as being unaffected in its plainness, and we decline to condemn it, for, though unlettered American is rude and even rowdy, lettered American is dreadfully apt to be such very nice English as to be more nice than good. It will be seen that Mr. Hudson's general scheme is excellent. We cannot think of pleasanter work for a teacher than reading these plays thus annotated with a bright and interested class. And in the course of a year or two he would have given himself an education in Shakespeare perhaps better than all the education in other things which he had been able to give his scholars. But whether in one important matter Mr. Hudson's execution of his scheme is not faulty, we are not sure. He has himself for a long time used the plays in the school-room; he has a practical knowledge of the matter which we have not, and on all grounds we dislike to say that we think he has in some instances failed. We shall say, however, that in our opinion Mr. Hudson's hand in expurgating has been too gentle, and that, if we were using the book, we should expect from the pupils—there are always some in every class—who conscientiously wish to leave nothing obscure, a question once in a while as to the meaning of certain expressions retained in the text which we, for our part, should find it difficult to answer. We shall not dwell upon this matter, except at a point where it has been somewhat insisted on by Mr. Hudson himself. The crazed Ophelia sings a song not fit for maidenly lips, which some of the critics have agreed to say is indicative not of a sensual nature, but of a nature for which Coleridge suggested the term sensuous; and we presume Mr. Hudson would say that to explain her warm love for a cool lover, as exhibited in the earlier scenes, we must entertain this opinion of Ophelia's temperament, and let her sing her song as a piece of self-revelation. He retains it in the text for the reason that it seems to him necessary to the completeness of this creation of the great master, and so cannot quite bring himself to remove it. We will not reply that the completeness of a great master's creations is in most places and circumstances a matter of immense importance, but that in schools for the young it is of precisely not the least importance in the world, when the question is whether to keep the completeness of the creation and sully some pupil's mind, or to sacrifice the completeness and save the purity. We will not so reply, because we are thoroughly persuaded that Mr. Hudson knows all this better than we can tell him, and that in the daily practice of his profession he feels it more constantly and deeply than we. But this we take leave to say, that commentators have written nonsense of all kinds about Shakespeare's meanings—nonsense flat and atrocious, beetle-headed, dull nonsense, learned nonsense, beautiful nonsense, and the nonsense of supersubtle refinement of thought; and that we for our part should not have retained Ophelia's song for any such reason as that we have quoted above, and which, we believe, was spun by Mr. Coleridge. We do not say that the song is not in keeping with the character, but that the character is portrayed in sufficient distinctness without that scrap of an old ballad.

Aus meinem Bühnenleben. Erinnerungen von Karoline Bauer. Herausgegeben von Arnold Wellmen. (Berlin: R. v. Decker; New York: B. Westermann & Co.)—The best critics of the German stage of thirty years ago, Tieck, Robert Blum, Gustav Kühne, agreed in assigning to Caroline Bauer the first place in the lighter drama, and a creditable success also in severer tragedy. Her voice and manner carried an irresistible charm; Kühne speaks of the "witchery of her musical voice," as Julia in the balcony scene; but that which gave her pre-eminence was that she "did not play her rôle but lived it," so that for the time being she became the character which she personated. This was in part the result of a sympathetic genius which entered into the very spirit of the poet, but it was mainly due to diligent, conscientious, persevering application. She herself describes

the many bitter experiences, the stern and severe strivings, through which the gay little comedian won her way from her childish illusion of a genius for the drama to her womanly triumphs as an acknowledged artist. But no art could be so touching as is the simple natural story of her first success, when, a girl of fourteen, moved by the inspiration of the drama and eager to support her widowed mother, she first stepped upon the stage in the little theatre of Carlsruhe; the anxious dressing hours before the time, the parting kiss to her mother, the palpitating heart during the overture; the sudden fear, in which she forgot everything, as the bell rang for the rising of the curtain for the scene in which Margaret must appear; the equally sudden return of self-possession to the point of self-forgetting. "How I represented Margaret I know not; I only remember that it was to me as though I really were Margaret; that I played with transport, loved the Count in spite of his forty-five years, wept, laughed, as the rôle required, and when the Count spoke the last words, as he handed me the wild flowers, 'Blühe wie sie, nütze wie sie, und bleibe dem Schmucke getreu, mit dem Deine Felder Dich schmückten,' I sank upon his breast, and awoke as from a dream when, on the falling of the curtain, came the stormy call, *Margarethe!*"

Margarethe has long known what it is to be a countess indeed, and the privacy of her domestic life should be guarded as sacredly as that of the convent, but we are grateful to her for lifting the veil so far as to afford these charming glimpses of her artist life—the whole career of which is described with the same naïveté as this girlish *début*. As a picture of the stage in a past generation, of travel before the day of railroads, of court-life in Berlin, Petersburg, Vienna, and Dresden, and of artistic and literary celebrities, the book has value apart from the thread of personal narrative. There is an amusing anecdote of the old King of Saxony, who, as Bauer was singing in "Ophelia," expressed his admiration so audibly that the audience, impatient of the interruption, began "Pst! pst! pst!" when the king broke forth still louder, "No! no! but a man must speak out!" and Ophelia hearing all, and singing the while. A pleasing trait of the book is its generous tone toward other artists. With a refreshing self-consciousness in the autobiography, there is yet no trace of selfishness, but the mirror reveals a pure, refined, and truly noble character.

. Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
A Crown from the Spear: A Tale.....	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) \$1 25
Bacon (Rev. L. W.), Inside View of the Vatican Council.....	(Am. Tract Society)
Fergusson (J.), Rude Stone Monuments in all Countries.....	(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong.) 9 00
Freeman (E. A.), History of the Norman Conquest in England, Vol. IV.....	(Macmillan & Co.)
Hints to Young Editors.....	(C. C. Chatfield & Co.)
Hart (J. S.), Manual of English Literature.....	(Eldredge & Bro.)
Hawthorne (N.), French and Italian Note-Books, 2 vols.....	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 4 00
Lynch (Rev. T. T.), The Moral of Accidents, and other Discourses.....	(Geo. Routledge & Sons) 1 75
Parry (Dr. J. S.), Vaccination: Its Uses and Alleged Dangers, swd.....	(Lancaster)
Prime (Rev. E. D. G.), Around the World.....	(Harper & Bros.)
Skeat (Rev. W. W.), Specimens of English Literature, 1394-1579.....	(Macmillan & Co.)
Stoner (P.), Robert of Woodleigh, and other Poems.....	(James Miller)
Una and Her Paupers.....	(Geo. Routledge & Sons) 2 00

Fine Arts.

THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM.

III.

WE will, in conclusion, take some notice of the class of works in which the Museum is richest. Of ideal schools and portrait schools its specimens are random and without connection, but it shows a strong representative chain of those painters whom people think of as the Dutch painters—the artists who turned out the groups of droll little figures, the interiors, and the sleepy landscapes. These Flemings and Dutch make little or no display of thought, they have only attained, in simple barbarian fashion, the secret of quality. They are the scorn of literary people, and they distil ennui into the marrow of the bones of tourists. It is in studios that their fame is guarded, and it is the dream of the modern landscapist, in whose conception we find so much soul and poetry, to steal a grace or a felicity of technic from these lethargic scenes that have no soul visible.

"The Mills" and "The Hillside" are a small pair by Jan Brueghel, which once belonged to Rubens, afterwards to the Duc de Praslin, and to the expert Le Brun, who caused "The Mills," or "Les Moulins," to be engraved by Le Bas for his gallery. In them we see landscape art still tentative, but using the perseverance and care that will set it on the right road. In the "Mills" a very pretty suggestion of blowing cloud-shadow

over the fields is given; but the enumeration of leafage on small, far-away trees is full of puerile innocence, and the deep-blues (said to be due to the absorption of the yellows by the colors with lead basis) must be imagined "out." This Brueghel was a friend of Rubens, who painted in association with him the large garden-of-acclimatization picture called "The Terrestrial Paradise." He was personally a neat creature, always dressed in velvet, and so-called Velvet Brueghel. By his father, Pieter, born in the commencement of the sixteenth century, there is something in the Museum of ruder fibre—a scene of gamblers quarrelling, in which we recognize the sort of art to which Leys and Tissot, in modern times, have applied for their archaic groups and costumes. Another father of artists is David Teniers the elder, whom the Museum exhibits in two specimens. Neither gives much proof of the facts that he was a pupil of Rubens and that he spent ten years at Rome among the works of Raphael and Michael Angelo in their freshness. The sturdy Flanders stock was too healthy to be affected by a change of atmosphere, and the painter continued his explorations of human homeliness. His principal exhibition here, however, is not human, but supernatural. He gives us his idea of a Temptation of Saint Anthony. The holy man, with book and rood, cowers in his cave, the air of which thickens with ugly, shrimplike creatures, swimming level-bodied across it, giving altogether a strong sentiment of the aquarium. The damsel who is supposed to be the heroine of the drama, and whom a goat-headed chevalier leads forward with courtly action, is neat and modest-looking, but a pair of sharp siren's claws peep from the hem of her dress. Should she prove ineffectual, another is coming, more seductive to the imagination; she advances from the shadows behind, sleeping, one elbow buried deep in the mane of the donkey she rides—a sort of sluggish, narcotizing nightmare. There are hosts of other figures, but withal a pitiful want of the noble grotesque—no hint of Albert Dürer. By the great Teniers, the son, the collection has a fine work, and one well known over Europe. Its French title is the "Lendemain des Noces"; it has been engraved by Le Bas, and owned by the Duc de Morny and the Marquis of Salamanca. The younger Teniers was son-in-law of Velvet Brueghel, and continued the story of Flemish art through a rich career until 1694, when he died in Brussels.

Meantime in Holland, Van Goyen, engraver and painter, was exuding his placid gray landscapes, interminably and inimitably, and educating a school of talented young men. Of the two views by Van Goyen in the gallery, one, the Moerdijk, is considered his masterpiece. The imprisonment of light in the central stratum of the picture—it is a motive of cumulus cloud reflected in a canal—is wonderful; it does not seem to be due to the somewhat opaque arch of clouds above, nor to the line of dark figures, like a row of small bronzes, which points upon it from the front; cover these contrasting objects, and the picture still shines on, with its steady silver blaze. It is just the sort of technic which seems to have been studied by P. J. Clays, the accomplished Brussels painter, who has learned a similar art of dazzling with gray lights a breadth of quiet water.

Among the long-skirted Leyden youths who studied with this master was Jan Steen, a kind of Dutch Cupid, whose attractions were too potent to be resisted by the daughter of the house, Margaret van Goyen. The easy-going father, on learning the facts, thought best to consent to a patched-up wedding: he gave his benediction and embraced a little grandchild at nearly the same time. By this reprehensible Jan Steen there are two paintings in the gallery, both showing a singular vivacity of talent. His "Kermesse" has some of the wealth of characterization of Rubens's large "Kermesse" in the Louvre. There is satire in the stout-legged fiddler, evidently playing his fastest to tire out the superannuated old beau who dances; a toper hails with gestures of his flagon a boat-load of more distant revellers; all takes place in the green before the Elephant Inn, which hangs out its sign and flies its flag over the roysterers; somewhere in the foreground there is a globular Holland baby, into whose bulbous face is kneaded an almost Satanic intelligence. Jan Steen has many styles, and another and finer manner is displayed in the repulsive subject No. 61. The principal object in this masterly composition is simply a group of tumbled bedding; the sheets form a principal light in the middle, and the draperies around them grow darker, until the two figures in pure black, at the sides, receive and deaden the last rays of illumination. The twisted sheets are here painted with wonderful beauty, and to look at them, and then at Gérôme's much-admired flying drapery in the garment just twitched off from his "Phryne," one would fancy that the French professor had made himself a pupil of the disreputable old Dutch artist.

In fact, if our modern painters have the culture which comes from a universal literary habit, and so give interests of a literary kind to their work, they must go back for many practical lessons to these tranquil, large-stomached, sly-eyed observers of the seventeenth century. And wise artists are perfectly sensible of this, and yearn with all their souls for the gifts of the

old masters' transparency and atmosphere, while they are grinding out idyllic subjects or archaic subjects for the market of the day. There was Théodore Rousseau, the hermit of Fontainebleau, who seemed to have created the oak-tree of modern landscape, but who in his own privacy was paying vows to all the specimens of Hobbema he could get sight of. From the Museum's example, No. 53, we can get some notion of the valuable lessons derivable from the master. The shadow on the curved road and on the earth bank is real shadow, and the soil is real soil beneath; the transparent film seems as if it might be directed away with a mirror, leaving the mire in its proper color. The trees are real trees, and through the grill-work of their stems we see the leading lines of the composition, all tending to a point on the right margin, in a delicate system of curves.

In Solomon Ruysdael, a pupil, like Steen, of Van Goyen, we see a craftsmanlike celerity of method. In the "Kermesse" the sky is trowelled on with liberal thicknesses of azure and white paint, while the buildings are brushed very thinly, and lined and hatched like English water-color; the groups of skaters and riders are dexterously built into the motive—a dark crowd clustering in the middle, while the heavy black roof is relieved with white caps, a white horse, and a roan horse, red saddle-cloth and red petticoat. Another liberal share of sky brightens the view of Alkmaar—a sky that is an arena, wherein the white-dappled clouds seem to be riding around in races; a feathery tree balancing in the breeze, windmills and a circumfluent canal, a towering church which dominates the village roofs, make up the picture, a tender portrait of a real locality. Both these complicated scenes, however, yield in beauty to the little gem, the Marine from the collection of Maximilian I. of Bavaria, in which the aspect of water, curdling and crisping under a wind and beneath a local cloud-shadow, is admirably given.

Sometimes the methods are so obvious that the effectiveness seems due to a trick. The little subject by Pieter Wouwerman would be a ball of blue-and-white sky held in a cup of dark foreground objects but for the introduction of the white horse, which repeats among the shadows the corpulent forms of the clouds. Similarly, the Berghem, by its diagonal line of deeply-shadowed forms, throws back the sky into surprising distance and brilliancy.

Another class attempt, with greater complication of idea, to paint real landscape poems, in the style so radiantly perfected by Claude. Van der Neer contributes to the Museum a little moonlight jewel, and a beautifully-focussed sunset. By Huysman there are three canvases of elaborate pomp, so rich as to suggest, but not detrimentally, the theatrical drop-curtain. The largest is particularized by M. Chesneau as "a gigantic picture of Huysman's, of Mechlin, taken from a castle of the Marquis of Hastings, whom the Derby ruined at twenty-six years of age." It is nine feet across, and realizes the Shenstone ideal of landscape, with forests that "frown" and azure mountains that "nod." Seen at high noon, in a direct light that will alchemize its darkened umbers, it is a peace-bringing and satisfying breadth of scenery, for which nature seems to have been tamed and made Virgilian. A smaller motive of very similar details, and a still smaller and still more beautiful sketch, make one feel, perhaps, as if there was about enough of Huysman, whose factitious scenes are less good to breathe in than the freshly-aired meadows of the simpler men. Finally, almost the full and most opulent enjoyment derivable from Claude Lorraine may be got from

the large Italian view by the brothers Both. Of these co-workers, Jan was a pupil and imitator of Claude, while Andries put in the figures; and the partners died in the same year, 1650, the landscapist at Utrecht and the figure-painter at Venice.

There are not many of the endlessly-curious and quaint Dutch street-scenes and architectural views in the Museum, but that by Jan van der Heyden is a curiosity and a perfection that fills the gaps left by many another. It is as highly-finished a piece of work as it is possible to see; the bricks even of distant chimneys being regularly squared and plumed, while the trees contain three leaves clearly drawn in the space of every pin's head. The tone is by no means lost or frittered off in this detail, but is beautiful on its own account; the limpidity of the canal is unsurpassable. This painter, who interests us by his lavish industry and care, seems to have been a sensible man with a taste for odd experiments; in one of his pictures is painted an open Bible, five centimetres in height, whose pages, covered with print, are legible. His researches in the practical part of hydraulics led to his being in ease at last on a pension which he obtained for improving pumps.

Another street-perspective, by Van Kessel, shows with ability the look of a storm just cleared away and leaving a leaden shadow on part of the city, while among the rain-washed brick walls peep forth the first passengers, and the swans come out from under the bridge and plume their white coats in the sun.

A broader and sketchier method, in similar subjects, marks the Italians who are represented here. Guardi, the pupil and counterfeiter of Canaletto, shows excellent canal views in Venice—the Rialto and the Salute Church—the architecture being washed with flat tints, and then drawn over with something that works like a crayon and ruler, leaving the stonework very sunny and luminous, almost, in places, like lithographic work of Prout's. For an interior, that of St. Peter's, by the scene-painter Pannini, is a good Italian specimen; the chalky look of distemper-painting is unpleasantly conspicuous when the work is compared with any of the good atmospheric interiors of the northern schools hung near by; but the charming little figures are dotted in with a glittering ease that the Dutch gentry did not dream of.

To conclude with dessert, there are some superb fruit-pieces, besides the Velasquez we have before alluded to. It needs but a minute's attention to detect the fact that there are different ways of regarding even this innocuous genre of painting; it seems that one group of artists thought of piles of fruit as jewelry, and painted contentedly away at the glitter and color; another class, deeper-souled men, seized fruits as things that grew and lived, and gave all their force to bringing out the developing power, the combat for existence, of vegetable life. Thus did Velasquez, and thus did Snyders, the magnificent painter of hunting-scenes. In the fruit-subject by Snyders here present, the objects seem to have rolled into place of their own volition; the branch of figs is visibly pushing forward and bursting, while the palmated fig-leaves and grape-leaves seem to be earnestly gesticulating. In contrast to this proudly-felt work, the elegantly painted fruits and vases by the two Van Heems, the forerunners of all the miracles in that line that Desgoffe and Preyer are elaborating in our day, seem like fixed and unchangeable objects, valued merely for their superficial charms of shape and hue, or for the vanity of giving immortality to the bloom that nature makes so perishable.

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